

# JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

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## EDITORIAL

Two conceptions about education are both fundamental and *very* revolutionary in practice.

*Education is not something to be got, certified, and stamped "educated."* It is rather a preparation and a prophecy. It is a stimulus, a momentum. That person is educated who is still curious, eager, alert, and growing at thirty, and at forty, and at fifty, and at sixty.

Hence, education does not consist of, and cannot be measured by, what a boy or girl knows or can do on a certain day in June of his or her senior year in high school—or at any other particular moment. Education consists of his or her will to do, to be, and to control. It depends on his or her readiness to use the tools and procedures with which he or she has practised in connection with school and affiliated educational institutions. For if the mind-set and self-confidence are right, the individual will go right on learning throughout life.

Truly, "education has no aim beyond itself"; it is the *growing*. All that we can judge at high-school commencement

is the value of this promise of continued growth throughout life.

The tools and procedures which the world of adolescents and adults needs and which alone can salvage civilization are not found in the conventional curriculum, except as marginal or contingent learnings. If associational living, civic attitudes and judgments, wholesome personal and community life, appreciations, scientific interests and methods, control of the language arts, and familiarity and sureness with the practical arts are the important tools and procedures—the "ways of life"—then the curriculum *must* provide and assure for every pupil practices in using these tools and procedures.

All subjects must, therefore, be taught as "ways of life." Up to the present, the curriculum has been an end, not an instrument of education. Pupils are taught science in order that they may know science. They learn mathematics and Latin and home economics and literature and bookkeeping in order that they may know mathematics and Latin and home economics and literature and bookkeeping. We

schoolmasters have a vague faith in the mystic and supernatural power of these subjects; we believe—we find it convenient to believe—that pupils who have “learned” subjects will live more adequately. But very seldom do we put our faiths to the test.

Many years ago, Herbert Spencer said of English education: “Had there been no teaching but such as is given in our public schools, England would now be what it was in feudal times. . . . The vital knowledge—that by which we have grown as a nation to what we are, and which now underlies our whole existence, is a knowledge that has got itself taught in nooks and corners; while the ordained agencies for teaching have been mumbling little else but dead formulas.”

Since that day we have modified our secondary curriculum. But we have not gone nearly far enough. We are

teaching and testing the words and facts of natural science, of social science, of mathematics, to be sure. But seldom are we encouraging youths to think, act, or behave scientifically, mathematically, linguistically. Some progress has been made—but very much remains to be done.

Only if we can challenge our youths to form their own opinions about social-science questions, natural-science questions, literary questions, associational living questions, only as we can get them to want to live hygienically, musically, artistically, and practically, both now and in the future, can we have any assurance that they will grow throughout life. Such challenges and such responses will increase in frequency and effectiveness as there emerges a curriculum which consists of “ways of life.”

### THREE LEADS FOR FURTHER INNOVATIONS OF THE AMERICAN SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

#### I

“What we reward is what we get.” Extrinsic motivation will remain for many years a determining conditioner of our curriculum practices, in spite of our new philosophy of intrinsically satisfying curriculum activities. If this is true, it behooves progressive school people to look with great care at our examination system.

So far the improvement of the examination in America has largely been concerned with increasing its thoroughness, its fairness, its objectivity, and its ease of scoring and “grading.”

Almost no attention has been paid to its significance as an educational instrument, a control of quantity and quality of pupil activity.

If we were not such creatures of habit the broad farce which we are ourselves engaged in playing, with such infinite seriousness and intensity, would surely make us rock with laughter and scorn at ourselves. We teach and test and teach again in order to gain complete mastery which will be measured by more tests—but how seldom do we examine the tests to discover whether what we test is the objective of the course!

Is science "a way of life"? How often do our tests measure *scientific living*? If instead they test merely information and techniques, then obviously pupils and teachers will emphasize these rather than *scientific living*.

Are civic attitudes and behaviors the desired outcomes of history, economics, and geography? What brave teacher will base his grades in these subjects on Hill's civic attitudes test rather than on verbal responses to fact questions? He will revolutionize his teaching if he does—and a glorious revolution it will be if he will persist.

Are international tolerances, literary appreciations, and worthy uses of leisure the objectives of foreign-language study? Must we not devise measuring instruments of how leisure is spent, how Daudet, De Maupassant, Storm, Ibanez, Horace, and Cicero are enjoyed and reflected upon, and how pupils react to foreign folkways, religions, and civic institutions? And must we not grade pupils' success on the results of such tests rather than on their vocabularies, pronunciations, and knowledge of grammar?

Objection may be raised that pupils might "pass" such examinations without even taking the courses. Granted. But well-planned courses should increase these desired traits; tests should measure them and marks should reward them; else, we must continue to stultify our schools.

Objection may be raised that tests will overlap from subject to subject; that pupils may "pass" well in French because they have studied history, or English literature, or Spanish. Granted. In professional schools of law, medicine, and education such a condition holds,

too. And it is accepted as a wholly desirable situation by most broad-gauged members of the faculties of such schools.

Perhaps the general examinations will make more progress in schools of all grades when once we discover that education is not the sum of factual and technical outcomes of unitary and disparate "courses."

At any rate, the exposures of our absurd practices cannot stand unchallenged longer. We teach and reward such English usages as we can test. And on the basis of "effort," "time spent in class," and "tested knowledges and skills," we promote and graduate the pupils. Nevertheless, Ashbaugh has shown that pupils' out-of-school language usages are unimproved. And Connor has discovered that by the very tests we use, the best third of the seventh-grade pupils do as well as the twelfth grade, from which he concludes that the apparent progress in English skills and knowledges are largely the result of elimination of the less effective pupils rather than of the solemn English instruction to which the "better" pupils are submitted.

The twenty-eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, entitled *Nature and Nurture*, showed with pitiless convincingness how little school marks, school attendance, "good teaching," etc., had to do with the abilities of pupils to pass tests even in the scholastic skills. What would tests based on the social objectives of education—civic, domestic, and economic efficiencies, good will, and desirable uses of leisure—have shown?



## II

Since our "teach-and-test" program is obviously carrying us around in a circle and getting us exactly nowhere, why not frankly recognize that pupils get their own education from their environments, and plan our curriculum in accordance with this new conception? May not our school programs reënforce, guide, offset, and direct pupils' activities in their homes, their neighborhoods, and larger communities, in their leisure time, and in their vocational activities and interests?

Is it only our vested interests, our inertia, and our extreme absorption with mechanics of school keeping which prevent us from seizing the new challenge which our recently gained knowledge of our ineffectiveness hurls at us? Or, are we determined to be ignorant of the meaning of the condition which confronts us? Can it even be that many of us are willing to play safe by appealing to the ignorant "culture chasers" in our communities, who desire for their children the "equipment of the élite," the "evidences of conspicuous waste"?

Some of us are like that, perhaps. With most of us it is the "too-bigness of it all," the fear of the unknown, that holds us back. In the old curriculum practices we feel secure—so why court danger and uncertainty?

Except in the entrenched academic curriculum very real progress is being made in high-school administration and education. Thousands of carefully planned, attractive, and effective high-school buildings testify to our desire for better physical conditions for our

youths. Improved cumulative records, homogeneous grouping, efficient cafeteria service, vigorous student participation in "co-curricular" activities, busy libraries, coöperation with Y.M.C.A., Scouts, and similar organizations, the appearance of deans, counselors, guides, psychologists, psychiatrists, visiting teachers, nurses, special provisions for dull-normal, unadjusted, and physically incapacitated children, the organization of parent-teacher associations, community orchestras, and dramatic societies—all of these give proof that we desire to serve youth during both school and out-of-school time.

Our program is, nevertheless, not altogether effective because we do not recognize frankly that the old smooth and simple motives are no longer potent for a large share of our pupils, and because we do not appreciate how complicated the life of the typical urban or suburban adolescent is. If the boy or girl should do all the things he is expected by teachers and parents and private music instructors and scout-masters and neighbors and employers and friends and athletic coaches, he would be a candidate for the sanatorium inside of a week.

George Bernard Shaw says somewhere that no person should be allowed to teach who has not reared a child. The writer of this editorial has been endeavoring to maintain a reasonable home environment for himself and wife and three adolescent children who have been attending one of the best and most humane high schools in the country. He feels, therefore, that he speaks with some degree of assurance. Even the best high school is an important edu-

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educational institution to the degree that it tolerates, encourages, and rewards the pupils' diversified educational activities, only a small fraction of which consist of paradigms and demonstrations and themes.

To the degree that English, social sciences, music, art, physical education, industrial arts, and home economics have become sufficiently fluid so that the courses consist of activities which pupils actually perform in their out-of-school lives, they have been effective instruments—they are “ways of behaving.” If foreign languages, mathematics, and science can find some point of contact with the pulsating life of youth, they, too, will increase in educational significance. Otherwise, these subjects must be content to be strictly “school” subjects. In that case they should be taught and studied in school so as not to distort present home and community living.

### III

Less has been heard in the past year than before of the superiority of the European academic traditional schools over the American public schools. Perhaps Dr. Judd's analysis of the Learned reports and Dean J. E. Russell's statement of the differences in aim and function of European selective secondary schools as compared with the American high school put a quietus on the matter. We have little to gain from emulating the schools of an artificial and rapidly dying social and intellectual aristocracy.

We have not profited as we should, however, from the significant innova-

tions in the modern schools of Europe. The fundamental social philosophy and democratic faith of F. W. Sander-son which underlay the development of Oundle School from 1892 to 1922 has perhaps no counterpart in all American secondary education. Arthur E. Morgan of Antioch College comes nearest, probably, to playing an equivalent rôle.

The dynamic character of spiritual release and intellectual enlivenment by which the folk high schools have reconstructed rural Denmark, without teaching or testing informations and techniques and with only a few months of school attendance for each young adult, is having some effect on American educational practices, particularly in the field of adult education. Several schools which endeavor to perform a similar function for American youths have been established.

The tentative changes in German schools and their relation to the Youth Movement, have counterparts in the changes taking place in American high schools. But here, with no organized youth movement but with equally potent youth behaviors, the changes are realistic and empirical; they are forced on our faculties by their inevitability. In Germany, the projected system is carefully planned with the support of the Youth Movement and the postwar democratic renaissance. The compulsory *Grundschule*, the four new types of *Gymnasien*, the *Volkschule*, continuation, vocational, and other *Mittelschulen*, all show the change in popular psychology and educational philosophy. They show, too, a most interesting interplay with the progressive educational philosophy in America. At the very

time that we were being scolded by Flexner and Learned because our democratic secondary schools were unlike those of aristocratic prewar Germany, German educators were reforming their schools and were much influenced by the practices of modern American high schools and by the philosophy of John Dewey and his disciples.

In Russian secondary education the changes in the technical high schools are less dramatic than they are in the elementary schools. But the Workers Colleges for gifted youths of eighteen who have been economic "workers" for three years, represent a most challenging effort of a formerly dispossessed people to build up leaders from their own ranks. Students, teachers, and administrators form the College Council which governs the institution. Here social sciences and engineering are taught with surprising adequacy to young men and women who are intelligent and willing but without much previous formal education. Proctor at Stanford has shown that similar service can be rendered to American young men who lack secondary-school training. Will American high schools and

colleges take advantage of such opportunities as are evidently open to them?

James E. Russell in his last report as dean of Teachers College, sums up the significant characteristics of American schools: "Schools open to children of all classes, supported largely at local expense, directed by lay trustees, and controlled by public opinion; teachers poorly trained and ill paid; textbooks like encyclopedias; libraries, movies, and the radio at every one's disposal; games and sports of major interest . . . the recitation, the repetition in class or on examination of materials assigned for home study, a method that encouraged guessing and made classwork a contest of wits between teacher and pupil. But, whatever its faults, it did one thing well: it developed initiative in American youth—it made them bold and daring, willing to take chances, ready to try anything once. . . . Modification will come in time, but revolutionary change is inconceivable so long as our education is of the people, for the people, and by the people."

The world of people both in Europe and in America is changing rather rapidly, however. Let us be on our guard to keep at least abreast with the world as it moves on!

#### CHANGING EMPHASES IN CURRICULUM THINKING

"The most important problem in secondary education is that of the curriculum," says Briggs. "The curriculum is primordial," says Bobbitt. But not only have music and art and economics and physical education and other new courses been inserted into the school curriculum by force of outside pressures, but even such old standbys as

science, history, and English were little sought by the schoolmen at the time they made their appearance in the secondary curriculum.

With so much discussion, so many revisions, such varied investigations as are going on at the present time, and with the publicity given to these through the valuable reports and books which

are appearing, it is to be hoped that the schoolman is seizing upon his collective destiny—that he will be the master of his fate. If so, an agent of more importance than the writer of reports, the orator, and the investigator is necessary. He is the innovator, the enthusiastic and not too intolerant experimenter with some new curriculum practice.

So this number is given over to a *résumé* and discussion of curriculum innovations by the innovators themselves. They are the greatest hope of the emerging curriculum.

*Is school education a "dud?"* Institutions conceived as means are in constant danger of becoming ends in themselves. That such consummation has already come to pass in the case of the school curriculum is the mournful conclusion of H. G. Wells, J. H. Robinson, George Bernard Shaw, Glenn Frank, E. O. Sisson, F. C. S. Schiller, Joseph K. Hart, and many other competent social philosophers.

Mental hygienists with their emphases on integration of personality and behavior adjustments are even more caustic in their comments on conventional-school-curriculum procedures. Wickman has shown how widely school teachers differ from mental hygienists in the evaluation of typical pupil behaviors and attitudes. Burnham says that the absolutely essential conditions without which a person cannot be quite sound mentally and with which, apart from accidental infection or heredity, one can have no serious mental disorder are these: a task, a plan, and freedom. By task, he implies "the serious busi-

ness of life" and also "interest in the job." The academic-high-school curriculum provides such tasks for very few pupils.

Among educational leaders opinions seem more conflicting. Kilpatrick, following Thorndike's terminology, has insisted that the fundamental psychological requirement of education "is but a 'set' consciously and volitionally bent on its end." Tildsley, in his discussion of the findings of the survey of the better teaching in the high schools of New York City, states that education is "the creation of an environment favorable to spontaneous growth, a situation of noninhibitions, of warmth, of something that "brings out the best in us" as three pupils (who replied to the questionnaire) said.

In the Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, the Committee on Curriculum Making set forth in fifty-eight paragraphs a philosophical platform on which all members could agree. In this statement the Committee says: "Meaning grows only through reaction"—"The essential element in 'subject matter' is probably now best conceived as 'ways of responding' or of reacting." Here is a truly revolutionary conception.

It must be admitted, nevertheless, that the influence of social philosophers, mental hygienists, and educational theorists have as yet had little effect on the work of curriculum committees and curriculum "experts." If we examine the Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, and Part II of the Sixth Yearbook we find little evidence of consciousness of the radical implica-



tions of modern science on the part of research students of the curriculum or of the sponsors of high-school-curriculum revisers even in such progressive cities as Denver, Detroit, Los Angeles, and St. Louis. If State and city syllabi are studied, one finds little encouragement that the accusations of the philosophers, the challenges of the mental hygienists, or the pronouncements of the educational theorists have been understood by course-of-study committees. Certainly, they are not themselves responding to these new doctrines by "ways of behaving."

If we turn from current curriculum-making practices to the much discussed field of methodology, what do we find? The emphasis is on testing, on research, and on plans and formulas that apply chiefly to the old conception of learning; i.e., the ability of the pupil to give back upon demand certain phrases and formulas which had been acquired by him, often without adequate understanding of their meaning and content—certainly without any probable changes in his ways of behaving.

True-false, completion, multiple choice, and standardized response tests—easy to make up or to purchase, easy to give, easy to grade, and generally so futile—all stress the mastery of subject matter set forth to be learned in order to pass tests on it and gain a promotion. And the "scientific" researchers use these instruments which measure silly minutiae to conclude that "demonstration methods" are *superior* to laboratory methods. They even conclude that our expensive laboratories are a waste of the tax-payers' money because a student can gain as

high a score on new-type tests after watching an experiment as though he performed it himself.

If the curriculum consists of ways of behaving, obviously we cannot measure the significant outcomes by tests of just one relatively unimportant way of behaving—verbal memory—especially, when later tests show that such memory sinks below the threshold of recall so very soon.

Demonstration methods may be better than laboratory methods. Winnetka, Dalton, Morrison Mastery, and all other special plans and schemes may be very superior to all others. We hold no brief for one or the other. But surely, the bases of deciding their relative values are inadequate.

If any plan or content increases emphasis on conformances and formal institutional virtues it is a failure; so say the social philosophers. If any plan discourages the pupil from accepting a task as his own, if it does not encourage him to make a plan for accomplishing the task, and if it does not allow him freedom in carrying out the plan, it is a failure, say the mental hygienists. If there is not a warmth, a something that brings out the best that is in the pupils, then it is a failure, say our educational theorists.

The growth towards better methods will be accelerated only by the development and promotion of newer concepts of the curriculum. For practical reasons, most curriculum revisions are based on the assumption of the essential permanence and inherent value of the accepted subjects—hence, mathematics committees with subcommittees on algebra! In more daring and ad-

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venturous cities and States some subjects are combined, much conventional material is omitted, and new topics and techniques are included—all in the light of various "scientific" studies.

In the hands of a few teachers in advantageously conditioned schools, the curriculum is being planned in terms of objectives; such teachers are convinced that present knowledges and skills are much less significant than are attitudes and desires towards the objectives.

"Creative" writing and reading, art and music, civics and school government, and science are "ways of life."

New York City is very fortunate in having 181 high-school teachers whom Dr. Tildsley can place on the highest level. *For they could not do such teaching if their principals and department heads were not men and women of tolerance, vision, and wisdom. To their classes the curriculum itself is a new instrument. It is a way of behaving!*

## PREPROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN THE FIELDSTON SCHOOL

V. T. THAYER

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. V. T. Thayer has a unique office; he is the professional educational adviser of the New York Ethical Culture Society's schools. His chief duty, we assume, is to think clearly and plan constructively for the further development of this most promising adventure in American education. Dr. Thayer was formerly (1922-1924) the principal of the Ethical Culture High School in New York; from 1924 until 1928 he served as professor of secondary education at Ohio State University. He has been a frequent and effective contributor to various educational magazines. His recently published volume, The Passing of the Recitation, is characterized by keen insight, scientific spirit, and a broad democratic philosophy.*

The Fieldston School of the Ethical Culture Schools is situated on eighteen acres of land at Riverdale, in the inner northern verge of New York City. It includes a middle school (junior high school), college preparatory departments of an upper school, preprofessional courses in art and business, and a preprofessional course for girls. The experimental work of the Fieldston School centers particularly upon the preprofessional courses which will extend eventually from the tenth grade through the period corresponding to the first two years of college.

From the standpoint of secondary education at large the Fieldston experiment in the reorganization of secondary education comes at an opportune time. Secondary-school enrollments since 1890 have increased from some

203,000 pupils to well over 4,500,000 at the present time. This, however, is merely the outward and visible sign of a profound transformation in the character and purposes of secondary education. Thus in 1893 it was possible for a national committee appointed to study the problem of reorganizing the high school to formulate this task for itself somewhat as follows: "*What subjects should be taught and how should these subjects be taught to those boys and girls who are intellectually and financially competent to undertake the work of the secondary school?*" This implied, of course, that the school should function as a selective institution. Today both compulsory-school-attendance legislation and the curricula actually in operation in secondary schools clearly indicate that the secondary

school is intended to serve the needs of all normal adolescent boys and girls. Its student body is drawn from every class in the community, and its obligation is nothing less than to prepare these pupils for an intelligent participation in a democratic citizenship. The realization of this broader purpose requires that new subjects be introduced into the curriculum and old subjects be reorganized and taught in new ways.

It is here that the Fieldston experiment promises a significant contribution. May we illustrate briefly?

Take first the subjects which all pupils, irrespective of their courses, are commonly required to study. They are what the schoolman calls "constants" in the program of studies and consist of subjects such as history, English, and civics, which are entered on a pupil's program because of their assumed indispensable cultural or citizenship value. If, however, one should investigate the basis upon which the content material in these "constants" is selected he will discover either the absence of a tangible principle of selection or the dominance of a college-preparatory purpose. Tradition alone determines chiefly the choice of both factual material and principles employed. Usually, since high-school texts have been written primarily by college teachers, the content of a course of study over a period of time will reflect fairly well the changing interests of advanced workers in the field rather than the educative possibilities for adolescent pupils implicit in the particular subject-matter field. On the other hand when a school does insist that a subject such as history or English be taught with

direct reference to the interests or needs of a special group of pupils the subject tends to take on a strictly utilitarian aspect and it becomes "business English," "commercial history," or the like. There results in practice a vicious dilemma; either the subjects of general education tend to have no bearing upon a vocational interest or, when they are given a vocational application, their cultural values are ignored. In either case culture and vocation come to have no more than a speaking acquaintance.

At Fieldston it is intended that the vocational interest shall serve as a bridge to culture. Culture is identified with a cultivated interest. The academic subjects of history, English, science, foreign languages, are organized in the preprofessional courses in such a way as to give to the student a sympathetic insight into the function which his vocation has performed and might well perform in society. The vocational interest is thus utilized for purposes of motivation and the cultural implications potentially present within it are made meaningful and explicit. Thus will the preprofessional courses bring into the secondary school a new and a suggestive principle for reorganizing subject matter in the conventional school subjects.

The attempt in the secondary school to provide for a student body of varied interests and abilities has resulted in what is frequently called the "elective principle." The old single-track curriculum in which all pupils studied the same subjects has given way to a multiple-track curriculum in which certain pupils concentrate upon commercial work, others

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upon college preparation, others upon industrial preparation, etc. However, in order to meet certain accepted common needs and to provide for individual differences in interests and requirements, schools have hit upon the device of permitting pupils to elect subjects within a given curriculum (e.g., bookkeeping rather than shorthand in a commercial curriculum) or from other curricula (e.g., a college-preparatory student may elect a commercial subject).

This policy has been furthered also because of the necessity for devising an educational medium of exchange, a device whereby work done in one school may be recognized for credit in another school or a college. The inevitable result of this procedure is, however, a situation in which each subject stands pretty much upon its own feet and consists of a standardized amount of information or training carried on for a prescribed period of time. An examination passed at the end of a specific period of work frequently ends a pupil's responsibility for the educational outcomes of a subject. That is to say, our elective system and our unit courses have introduced a discontinuity and a lack of integration in the educational development of secondary-school pupils. This has led Dr. William S. Learned to say quite properly of the American secondary school: "The curriculum is a rope of sand, without texture or organization. Effective education through related ideas is thereby sacrificed to the mere registering of information."

The preprofessional courses at Fieldston will substitute for the elective system the principle of *functional organization*. In planning the preprofes-

sional business course, for example, the question is asked, "What is the function and what should be the function which a business man exercises in our present economic and social structure?" And again, "What kind of education is best adapted to prepare one adequately for the performance of this function?" By selecting subjects and planning the materials and activities within these subjects with direct reference to their bearing upon the development of the vocational interest the preprofessional courses introduce into the senior-high-school curriculum a sadly needed emphasis upon continuity and an integrated education. They seek to build the work of one year squarely upon the work of a previous year so that each year's work may stimulate and develop a progressively enriched and deepened pupil interest.

This point will be clearer if we illustrate with one or two subjects in the preprofessional course in business. In history, for example, one of the objectives is to make the student conscious of his vocational ancestry. With this purpose in mind he is given a two-year course in world history. In this course special emphasis is placed upon those periods of history which are of peculiar significance for the business man. In studying about the Phoenicians, Venice, the Hanseatic League, the British East India Company, and so on, the student will come to realize at once the good that has come out of the expansion of commercial interest, the stimulation given to the sciences and the arts, and the evil consequences that have also followed from the impact of one civilization upon another.

The course in science is primarily one in physics. This provides a thorough study of all of the important divisions of that subject: mechanics, heat, electricity, sound, and light. The interrelationships of science and business are, of course, most numerous. In business and commerce there is constant use of steam and gas engines, electric motors, dynamos, cranes and derricks, locomotives, ships, automobiles, and airplanes. Knowledge of the use of water, of coal, of oil and gas as sources of power, and the control of the steam and electricity generated by them, is essential. The modern tendency towards the use of liquid and gaseous fuels, towards the conversion of coal into liquid form or into powdered form as more effective modes of using the fuel, must be understood by the manufacturer.

New York and its vicinity is, moreover, one of the greatest textile centers in the world. It is highly important, therefore, that most business students, if not all, should come to know the essentials of the chemistry of textiles, both natural and artificial, the more important dyes, the principal methods of dyeing and bleaching, the chemistry of inks and of paper. The chemistry of iron and steel and other important metals and their corrosion under atmospheric agencies introduces the fascinating new chapter on alloys—the rustless steels, the steels that resist fatigue, and the steel that keeps its temper even at a red heat.

It should also be clear from the above illustrations that science and the business interest can be so related that abstract theory may be vitalized by its contact with fact, and facts which might

otherwise be dull and uninteresting may be transformed into new and significant meanings.

The preprofessional course for girls is likewise an experiment of a new sort. Here, too, the principle of organization may be illustrated by reference to one or two subjects. The course in English and history, for example, is built upon the general assumption that in order to fulfill one's function in society it is necessary to understand the relations of this function to the whole. Consequently, the student concerns herself in the ninth and tenth years with general history. Emphasis is placed upon those periods which have made significant contributions to world civilizations. In the course of this study correlations will be established with the course, "Survey of Woman's Place in Contemporary Civilization," and stress will be placed upon the position occupied by women in the social orders of the past. With this foundation laid in these two years, the student undertakes in Form VII (the equivalent of the first year of college) a more intensive study of woman in history. She will review the history of women from the earliest time to the present day, the part that woman has taken in creating civilization, woman's influence in religion, in government and the arts, and more particularly in the family. This leads up to the problems of modern women. What is to be her place in modern society? What is to be her distinctive influence in creating a better civilization? In seeking to solve these questions the student in Form VIII will make a study of contemporary institu-

tions and problems, constantly using the community as a laboratory.

English in the preprofessional course will also differ essentially from the course commonly followed in secondary school and college. In composition it will attempt of course to develop a familiarity with those idioms of thought and expression peculiar to English-speaking people, analyze those terms of expression which distinguish English speech and psychology, and develop in the student a power over language as a tool. Teachers of English composition may, however, develop this power with any sort of subject content. The principles of rhetoric are identical whether applied to an advertising poster or a sonnet. It is therefore purposed to make use of the girl's interest in historical research and her vocational experiences. Students will be encouraged to draw their theme subjects largely from their specialized courses and class reading. The texts used in class will continue to be those used in conventional courses, but a far larger body of supplementary reading will consist of books especially interesting to women.

The conclusion of the third year of the upper school (Form VI) will find the student equipped with the fundamental adaptations in writing, familiar with the general outlines of English literature, and able to read this literature with intelligence. From this point on, in contrast with the practice in the liberal-arts college, no attempt will be made to develop in the student a special familiarity with the work of special periods of literary history or with special schools of writing. On the contrary

the course will be based on the assumption that it is vitally important for women to evaluate current literature and drama as they are produced. While the classics of English literature will continue to furnish criteria with which to judge the present, increasing emphasis will be placed upon contemporary literature. The location of the school in New York will make possible the use of productions of the current dramatic season; books that give special prominence to the changing condition of women in society will form part of the reading content (e.g., G. B. Stern's *The Matriarch*, the novels of Dorothy Canfield Fisher, etc.), and in connection with the study of psychology, a definite attempt will be made to learn something of the type of books suited to different stages of development. In the nature of things, such a scheme must be filled out as it goes along, but these illustrations will serve to indicate the general line of interest and effort shaping the course.

This hasty summary has been restricted to a few conspicuous contributions which the Fieldston experiment can make to the public secondary school. Much that should be said has been omitted. A more complete account would have stressed the social values which should flow out of the policy of having pupils with different vocational interests associated in classroom and extracurricular activity so as to encourage a better understanding, appreciation, and evaluation of qualities one may see in another but lack in himself. Likewise there is the temptation to describe the distinctive classroom method which must be developed



if pupils of different abilities and interests are to grow in ways that each requires in the same classroom. Such a description, however, cannot be given here.

We must conclude by emphasizing that the preprofessional idea of education contrasts of necessity with the conventional conception of preparation for college. The pupil who at present follows a college-preparatory course acquires a familiarity with facts and a knowledge of principles which college teachers of specialized subjects too often hastily conclude are essential as a basis for admission to their courses.

Consequently the educative exploitation of a life interest is not the determining factor in planning a secondary-school course. The preprofessional plan centers upon preparation for the exercise of a life function. The Fieldston School proposes to ask: "What is the function of a vocational interest and how can we best equip our pupils for an effective exercise of this function?" And it will then turn to the pupil who believes he possesses such an interest and strive to assist him in testing the validity of his decision by developing its cultural and practical implications.

### CONTRASTING CURRICULAR PROCEDURES IN ENGLISH AND AMERICAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

E. D. GRIZZELL

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *Dr. Grizzell, professor of secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania, is chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland. He spent last year England making an intensive study of their secondary schools. The following article gives an outstanding comparison of curricular procedures in the two countries.* F. E. L.

Curriculum organization in England and the United States is a field for fruitful investigation. Even a superficial study of practices in the two countries reveals significant differences in practice. Disregarding relative values of content and noting the technique of curriculum organization as such, there are at least six significant aspects of the matter that deserve consideration.

(1) *The continuity of secondary education.* Tradition is largely responsible for the fact that the English secondary-school pupil receives a longer and more continuous secondary education than does the secondary-school pupil in

the United States. He enters the secondary school not later than eleven years of age, sometimes as early as eight, and frequently at the age of ten. In most cases he remains in school until sixteen and frequently longer, some schools allowing him to stay until nineteen if conditions warrant. In any case he may expect four to five years of continuous education in the same school. Boys and girls in the "public schools" and girls' high schools have usually prepared for these secondary schools in preparatory schools with entrance to a particular school in view, and the curriculum of the preparatory school is organized somewhat in line

with the curriculum the pupil will follow in the secondary school. Even pupils transferring from elementary schools do so at the age of ten or eleven only after passing a qualifying examination intended to select pupils specially prepared to carry on secondary-school work. Only the best candidates are permitted to make this transfer and their parents are frequently required to sign an agreement to keep them in school until the age of sixteen. Contrast this with the practice in the United States, where every pupil completing the elementary school may secure free entrance to the public high school. The result is a high per cent of elimination each half year with something less than thirty per cent of those entering the ninth year remaining in the twelfth and some of these failing to complete the requirements for graduation. If the holding power of the school is an evidence of its efficiency (and such evidence is frequently offered to justify the junior high school), those responsible for secondary education in the United States might take a leaf from mother England's old book of recipes.

(2) *Continuity of subjects.* If continuity of subject matter has any bearing on continuity of development, a casual inspection of the curriculum of the secondary school in England and the United States is sufficient to reveal a wide difference in practice. Perhaps the only subject receiving continuous attention in the curriculum of the American secondary school is English. In practically every other subject or field common to the two curricula

the English curriculum shows a much greater degree of continuity. Science is a good example. In England the pupil begins with an introductory course in science which is followed by three or four years of continuous training in physics and chemistry or biology and chemistry or some other combination depending upon the student's educational or vocational future. The several sciences are carried along simultaneously or as nearly so as possible. Units of work in one science that are considered prerequisite to certain units of work in another science are placed early in the course and the interrelations of the sciences are carefully provided for.

Mathematics is another example of radically different procedure in organization. In England, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry are treated as parts of one field of learning by being interrelated throughout the several years. For example, algebra and geometry are usually taught by the same teacher and an individual pupil will carry both algebra and geometry simultaneously. In the higher levels of the work, trigonometry, analytical geometry, and calculus are also introduced. Science and mathematics are correlated in mechanics, in other applied sciences, and in certain types of shopwork. The frequent practice in America of a year of algebra, followed by a year of plane geometry, followed by a half year of algebra, followed by a half year of solid geometry, followed by a half year of plane trigonometry, followed by a half year of college algebra (if the student happens to take so much mathematics) is in principle not condu-

cive to continuity in mathematical development. To make matters worse, the student in a large high school frequently has a different teacher for each half year of mathematics. Of course some of the danger may be avoided if the department of mathematics is favored with a good supervisory head or a coöperating group of mathematics teachers.

(3) *Correlation of subjects.* Reference has been made to the correlation of science and mathematics in the teaching of mechanics in English schools. Great care is exercised in the correlation of physics and chemistry and chemistry and biology, the latter in girls' schools especially. Other subject combinations that receive careful attention are history and geography; ancient history and the classics; English and history; English and student activities, such as debating, dramatics, and the school magazine; and physical education and games. Perhaps the reason for this general practice in English schools is the fact that schools are usually small and teachers frequently teach more than one subject. In America, especially in the larger cities, secondary schools have grown into institutions enrolling thousands of pupils. Departmentalization has developed to such an extent that the essential unity of the pupil's education is being lost sight of, or entrusted to experts in guidance.

(4) *Integration of the school program.* Perhaps the one big problem of curriculum makers is to provide ways and means for an integrated, unitary development of the individual. The

English secondary school has, in the judgment of the writer, accomplished a great deal in this direction. The life of the school, the activities of the boys and girls and teachers are all essential and significant elements of the educational program. Without these there would be no school. These activities are varied, yet unified, and no one activity, such as classroom activity alone, can take the place of any other, such as that of the playing field or the chapel or the dining room or the "house" in the boarding school or even in the day school. Some American private schools and some public high schools have made progress in integrating the school program but there is generally a wide gulf between the program of studies and the program of activities in the American secondary school. The opportunities for such an integration are even greater in the American school with its varied program than in most English schools and for the same reason the need is greater. An excellent example of the practice in England is to be found at the Holt Secondary School in Liverpool, which provides a unique program in Greek civilization. Practically every department in the school makes a definite contribution to the program.

(5) *Differentiation in terms of pupil capacity.* English schools because of their limited enrollments have been able to differentiate work for pupils with some degree of success without employing the more systematic procedures in use in many schools in the United States. Some schools are organized into parallel "forms," the pupils in the different forms of the same level

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having a somewhat different curriculum. The Holt Secondary School in Liverpool provides three upper fifth forms: X (arts) leading to an arts course in the sixth form and the university; Y (science) leading to advanced work in science in the sixth form and the university; Z (general) which may be used, if widened, as preparation for the school certificate examination. Previous to the upper fifth form, adjustments are made for individual pupils who have the ability to do four years' work in three years. Apparently more attention is paid to the bright pupil in

the first school certificate which corresponds to the certificate or diploma of American secondary schools. The Board of Education has developed a scheme of special grants to schools providing satisfactorily for sixth-form specialization. The range of specialization is limited to such major subjects as classics, mathematics, science, modern languages, and history (including English, history, and geography).

A good example of the scheme for sixth-form specialization which usually covers a period of two years is that in force at Eton.<sup>1</sup>

Subject of Specialization	Classics	Mathematics	Language	History	Science
	(Numbers denote hours per week in school)				
Divinity .....	1	1	1	1	1
Classics .....	13	1	0	0 or 6 or 2	1
French .....	0	0	7	0 or 7 or 4	0
German or Spanish .....	0	0	7	6 or 0	0
English, History, Geography...	3	4	5	11	4
Mathematics .....	0	10	0	0	4
Extra Studies .....	3	3	3	3	3
Science .....	1	4	0	1	10
Lecture .....	1	1	1	1	1

England than in the United States; and more provision is made for the average and slow pupil in the United States than in England. The danger of neglecting the bright pupil in the American secondary school is a real one and some schools are making special provision by means of differentiated curricula and individual instruction. The triple-school organization of the James Madison High School in New York City is a good example of curriculum differentiation in a large city high school.

(6) *Specialization.* In recent years much progress has been made in English secondary schools in the provision of advanced courses for pupils desiring to continue education after obtaining

Not all English schools are able to offer sixth-form work in the five important academic fields. Some schools attempt one or two fields depending upon the qualifications of members of the staff, library facilities, and the interests of students. At the end of the period of specialization the students take the examinations for the second school certificate which is generally the basis for admission to advanced standing at the universities (except Oxford and Cam-

<sup>1</sup> *The Eton Calendar for the Lent School-Time, 1929*, page 115. Extra studies denote a choice of the following: English literature, history, advanced classics, drawing, music, mathematics, French, German, Italian, biology, Certificate A. Five other alternative programs are provided for boys of differing abilities and interests. All require intensive work in one field, and less intensive work in certain related subjects.

bridge) and for the award of various scholarships to universities.

In addition to the standard sixth-form work some schools (particularly girls' schools) offer training in commercial work, household arts, fine arts, and music. Cheltenham Ladies College offers postschool curricula or "courses, generally of one year, in music, art, home science, and library training . . . intended for pupils over 17 who are fitted for them by their tastes and abilities and previous work."<sup>2</sup>

The curriculum practice in the United States is radically different from English practice in some respects and similar in others. Whereas, specialization in English secondary schools is deferred until the end of the fifth form, it begins theoretically in many American standard high schools when the pupil enters high school and chooses the curriculum that he will follow. As he advances through school, specialization increases until the end of the high-school period. If he continues in college or other institution he is again faced with the problem of choosing a specialty and starting again with a theoretical but limited specialization which increases as he advances through the higher institution. At the beginning of both the secondary school and the higher institution the student is compelled to start with a year or two of rather broad training in required subjects before he is allowed to concentrate in his field of special interest. Perhaps the junior college is the way out of the difficulty. This is the one aspect of specialization in American secondary education that has some

likeness to the English sixth form which has done more than any other one thing to set a high standard of scholarship in English secondary education and to challenge the best talent in English secondary schools.

A general organization of the curriculum from the preparatory school through the sixth form is well illustrated by the plan of the Bradford Grammar School. This is a large school with a complex organization, but the plan illustrates the general principle of curriculum organization followed in English secondary schools.

A boy does not necessarily pass through every form, but as a rule passes from a second to a third, from a third to a fourth and so on.<sup>3</sup>

Curriculum making in England is still largely a matter of organizing formal subject matter into convenient "schemes of work." There is little evidence of professional activity in curriculum construction such as prevails in the United States. The Board of Education has issued reports from time to time dealing with the various subjects. At the present moment there is an undercurrent of criticism and unrest, due partly to economic conditions and partly to an increasing demand for a type of education more suitable for girls and for English youth who have little interest in or aptitude for the traditional forms of secondary education.

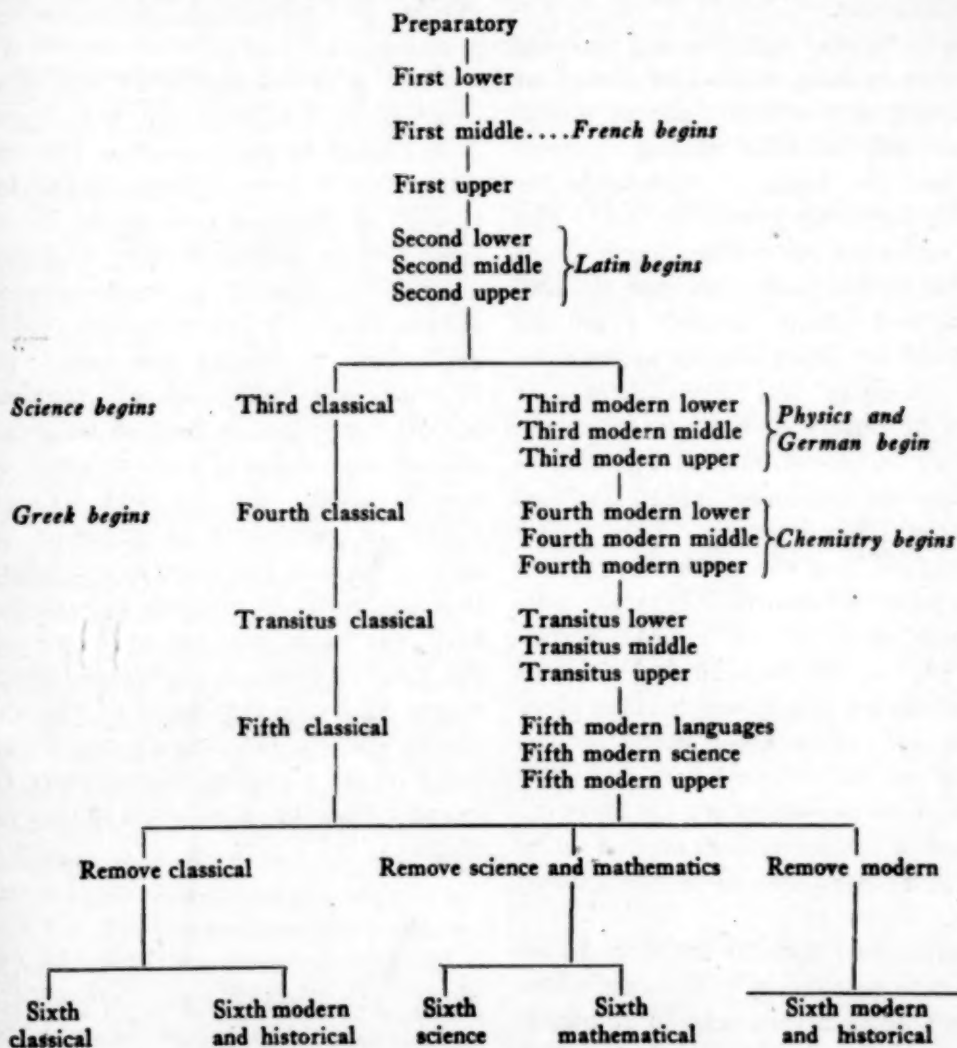
Factors affecting curriculum practices in the secondary schools of England and the United States vary considerably in influence in the two countries. Examinations have a much greater effect

<sup>2</sup> *Prospectus of the Cheltenham Ladies College, 1929*, page 19.

<sup>3</sup> Bradford Grammar School: Year Book, 1928, page 9.

upon the curriculum in England than in the United States. Sir Michael Sadler began a recent address with: "England, now that China has changed, is the classic land of examinations."

One is frequently told by teachers in England that the chief concern of the teacher and pupil during the two years ending with the fifth form is to meet the requirements of the first school ex-



amination. It is extremely difficult for a school to give attention to subjects not recognized in the school certificate examinations. The syllabus of one of the several examination boards is frequently followed as a course of study in English schools and past examination

papers serve as drill exercises and even as test questions. In view of the fact that every secondary school in England must send its pupils up at the end of the fifth form to take the examinations of at least one of the eight examining authorities in England and Wales, the



system has far greater influence in England than in the United States. The only corresponding examining authorities in America are the College Entrance Examination Board and the New York Regents.

Governmental agencies are growing in power in England. The Board of Education as a national agency wields considerable influence through inspection and the fixing of standards for schools receiving grants in aid. The local education authorities likewise are growing in their influence upon the municipal and county secondary schools and other secondary schools within their areas receiving aid from them. It should be observed, however, that the influence of governmental agencies is not as direct and immediate in England as in the United States. This is due to the fact that the secondary school in England is accorded greater independence than in the United States. Even so, the full inspection of an English secondary school which takes place about once every eight years for all schools on the "efficient list" is a very thorough survey—perhaps far more detailed than the inspections carried on by most State departments in the United States.

Professional agencies are more active in matters pertaining to the curriculum in the United States than in England. Some attention is given to curriculum matters by the various secondary-school associations but nothing comparable to the work of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association or the National Society for the Study of Education or the Modern Language Association would be possible in England at the present time. De-

partments of education in English universities seem scarcely to recognize any responsibility for curriculum research. In most instances they have little contact with the secondary school except in connection with teacher training.

Even a casual survey of curriculum practice in England and the United States leads to the conviction that tradition lays a heavier hand on the curriculum in England than would be tolerated in the United States. One need but take account of the numbers studying the classics in every English secondary school to realize this fact. The fact that the "public-school" tradition is the great ideal in English secondary education accounts in some measure for this reverence for the old. To an American this attitude seems a bit strange at first, but when one considers that the roots of English culture lead back, far back, into the past and that the English youth is surrounded everywhere by hoary reminders of the ages through which his country has passed there comes a feeling of reverence for it and a wish that it may not change too quickly.

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#### JOHN DEWEY

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John Dewey was born on October 20, 1859. In honor of his seventieth birthday, meetings were held in New York on Friday and Saturday, October 18 and 19, 1929. On these occasions men and women from the fields of education, of philosophy, and of social welfare met to pay tribute to this prophet of what the twentieth century may be.

More profoundly than any other living man has John Dewey affected the thinking and policies of liberal Americans. Peculiarly true is this in the field of public education. The socialization of the educational spirit, and procedures is largely the consequence of Dr. Dewey's experimentation and writings.

## A RE-STATEMENT OF THE AIMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN TERMS OF ADJUSTMENT

WILLIAM MARTIN PROCTOR

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Dr. Proctor is professor of education at Stanford University. As a scientific student of education, as a writer, and as a lecturer he has rendered pioneer service to secondary education. Possibly no one has done more than Dr. Proctor to foster a rational idea of the just demands of the college on the high school. As a consultant in curriculum revision he is directing thinking along functional lines and the present re-statement of aims in terms of adjustment makes a contribution which curriculum committees and classroom teachers will appreciate. Dr. Proctor is one of our associate editors.*

F. E. L.

The two outstanding tasks confronting school administrators at the present moment appear to be administrative reorganization and curriculum revision.

Administrative reorganization has been directed towards a re-grouping of the elementary and secondary grades. Various "plans" have been proposed, such as, the six-three-three, the seven-four, and the six-two-three, where the elementary and regular high-school grades alone are concerned. Where the junior college is included, there are advocates of the six-three-three-two, the eight-four-two, the six-four-four and the six-two-three-two grade combinations. Kansas City, Missouri, in addition to having the six-two-three-two plan in operation, is reported to be contemplating a revised version of the six-three-three plan, by which two years would be eliminated from the present fourteen years required to complete grades one to fourteen, inclusive. This would permit students to reach the junior year in a standard college at an average of eighteen years, rather than at twenty years, which is the present average.

Curriculum reorganization has also been going forward very rapidly. The greatest progress has been made in the elementary field, but during the past five

or six years there has been marked activity in the secondary field. Los Angeles, Denver, St. Louis, Detroit, and other large cities have staged intensive revision campaigns and have materially stimulated revision efforts in other school systems. The printed course-of-study monographs published by the school departments of these cities have been extensively employed by curriculum committees in other centers. The importance of the curriculum revision movement was recognized by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, which devoted its 1927 and 1928 Yearbooks to the junior- and senior-high-school curricula. Also the National Society for the Study of Education contributed both parts of its Twenty-sixth Yearbook to curriculum problems. Numerous books, dealing with curriculum revision, have made their appearance during the same period of time, and the Research Division of the National Education Association has compiled several worthwhile bulletins.

Out of the two movements above mentioned, i.e., administrative reorganization and curriculum revision, there has arisen a widespread discussion of the aims of education. The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education as

set forth in Bulletin No. 35, United States Bureau of Education, for 1918, have been widely accepted as fundamental. Many committees have undertaken to state the aims of their specific subjects in terms of the Cardinal Principles, with the result that their formulations appear stilted and perfunctory. Like an oft-repeated creed the Cardinal Principles have been reiterated until they apparently have lost their vitality.

There is need, therefore, for a re-statement of the aims of secondary education in terms which can be applied by curriculum committees to their work. These aims should be so stated that they represent the goals of accomplishment for all courses of study. This requires that general terms shall be employed. However, the aims should be definite enough to serve as guideposts in curriculum making, as well as to furnish the main points for checking up the completed course of study. In other words, if the aims of education are stated in terms that can be readily understood by the classroom teachers who work on course-of-study committees, two things will be accomplished: (a) the subject matter and materials are more apt to be selected with a view to the contribution which they will make to the stated aims of the course, and (b) the administrator or curriculum adviser can more easily check the proposed course in an objective way, to discover whether or not it actually does contribute as much as it should to the general aims of education.

A re-statement of the aims of education, to meet the above conditions, should take into account the prevailing educational philosophy, and the ac-

knowledge purposes of those who have attained leadership in curriculum thinking in this country during recent years. It is safe to assume that the fundamentals of present-day curriculum philosophy are to be found in the writings of John Dewey and his interpreters. This means that the aims which we propose must square with a democratic and social theory of education, and that due recognition must be given to vitalized activity as an educative procedure. It also means that our educational aims must be so stated that they shall require for their realization a shift from the "subject-centered" to the "child-centered" type of curriculum. This latter consideration is vital. Too often in the past, our curriculum committees have been satisfactorily orthodox in their "lip service" to a democratic educational creed. They have smugly stated their aims in terms of present-day democratic curriculum philosophy, and have then proceeded to revamp an antiquated course of study leaving it almost as abstract and fully as "subject-centered" as it was when they undertook to revise it. What is necessary is that courses shall be rebuilt from the ground up and carefully designed to accomplish certain definite purposes. It is also necessary that there shall be standards of evaluation by which the completed courses can be accurately judged.

Assuming that preparation for living in a democratic social order, and for making a worth-while contribution to the continuity and progress of that social order, is the accepted goal of our educational effort, how can we state the objectives of secondary education i

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such a way that teachers will be able to see their curriculum tasks in a new light? Since we know that social progress is measured by the sum of man's adjustments to the conditions of life, would it not be helpful to re-state the aims of education in terms of adjustment? The greatest problem confronting the individual from the cradle to the grave is the necessity for making adjustments to his physical, social, and spiritual environment. Skill in making these adjustments is a matter of training, habit formation, the proper application of acquired knowledge to new sets of circumstances, and the possession of ideals of conduct and workmanship. The individual does not instinctively possess these means of making adjustments to life's conditions, but must acquire them by the trial-and-error method, or by formal instruction, or by both methods in combination. The necessity for making these adjustments arises in each of the great fields of human activity. The number of these fields has been variously stated: Inglis gives three, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, in *Cardinal Principles*, gives seven, and Bobbitt gives ten or eleven. For illustrative purposes, six fields may be made to cover the ordinary activities of life. The six selected are: physical, mental, social, economic, aesthetic, and ethical. Following is an effort to state the aims of education, in each of these six fields, in terms of adjustment:

1. *Physical adjustment:* This involves care of health and physical development. Training should result in bodily control, muscular co-ordination, and the enjoyment of physical activities whether in work or play. Outcomes of

courses should be proper habits of regular exercise, care of person, proper diet, and observance of the laws of hygienic living.

The acid test of the school's success in helping people to make physical adjustments is the everyday behavior of those whom the schools have trained. Do these persons take regular exercise? Do they have practical ideals of personal cleanliness? Do they eat nourishing food, and obey the laws of hygiene? Do they engage in recreative play and pastimes in a spirit of true sportsmanship? If so, they may be said to be making satisfactory those physical adjustments which will provide a solid foundation for healthful and vigorous living. If, on the other hand, they generally fail to do most of these things habitually, it is apparent that their courses in physical education failed to function. The school, or the home may be to blame for the situation, but the chances are that in both the home and school too much reliance has been placed upon knowledge and information *about* the laws of physical growth and hygiene, and too little attention has been given to habit-forming experiences. The point for curriculum committees to bear in mind is how to provide for daily practice and experience in healthful living as an integral part of the courses in physical education and hygiene. Another point to be considered is how to measure the results obtained in order that the courses may be progressively revised until they begin to approximate the desired outcomes.

2. *Mental adjustment:* This involves training in the ability to solve the daily problems of life, to plan, to invent, and to employ one's

creative ability in the realm of ideas and mechanisms. The laws of mental growth and development should be understood, and there should be training and experience in the laws of mental health and hygiene. Exercises should be provided which demand independent thinking, reasoning, and meditation, as well as the formulation of individual judgments and conclusions. An attitude of open-mindedness and a spirit of fair-mindedness should be cultivated.

The "subject-centered" curriculum has wrought its greatest mischief in the realm of mental adjustment. Its chief tool has been the textbook; its prevailing method the assignment of pages of printed matter to be devoured and regurgitated in a recitation period. Rewards have been highest, not to the students expressing original ideas but to those capable of reproducing with greatest exactness the ideas of some one else. This has tended to make of us a people inclined to depend on others to do their thinking for them. The results were not disastrous so long as the continuance of pioneer conditions forced nearly every one to meet and solve daily the problems of economic survival. But with mass production, machine methods, concentration in great population centers, and the problems of daily living reduced to the simple necessity of pressing an electric button, or manipulating some "fool-proof" mechanical device, there is an increasing need for problem-solving experiences, and for training in the application of sound reasoning to the larger problems of group living.

The need is also great for training in the application of the principles of mental hygiene. High-pressure living, the rapid pace set in business and industrial relations, and the keen compe-

tition which enters into every line of human effort, all tend to put a heavy strain upon the human nervous system. Many thousands of Americans, old and young, are breaking under this strain. They need the strengthening that would come from daily experience of a sane mental hygiene.

Course-of-study committees should ask themselves these questions: Does the course provide opportunities for the exercise of originality, for initiative, for independent opinions, and individual reactions? Does it promote open-mindedness, and fair-mindedness in the give and take of argument? What is done in the course to overcome fears, prejudices, and unreasoning racial and social hatreds? Does it help to create an attitude of intellectual curiosity, and a desire to pursue the subject after formal schooling days are over? Will it result in stimulating a few students to become creative thinkers and research workers in that field?

3. *Social adjustment*: This involves all kinds of social and civic relationships (family, playground, school, community, city, State, and nation). Demands training in ability to meet and get along with people in all walks of life, and to work with others harmoniously towards common civic and social ends. There needs also to be cultivated an attitude of willingness to assume and faithfully discharge civic obligations and duties.

Great faith is had in the potency of certain subjects as basic training for citizenship. Hardly a State in the Union which does not prescribe courses in civics, both in the elementary and secondary grades. Several States also prescribe examinations in the Constitution of the United States as a condition of graduation from college. The

assumption apparently is that a knowledge of governmental machinery will make law-abiding citizens. This is akin to another fallacy; i.e., that a knowledge of the number of bones in the human body will make healthy citizens. The truth is that social and civic adjustments are achieved by practice and experience in typical social situations. It is by taking part in group activities, adjusting his wishes to the wishes of the group, sharing responsibility, and bearing his share of the burdens, that an individual learns to become a worthy member of that group, and thus attains citizenship.

It is impossible for social-study-curriculum committees to write courses that will accomplish the aims of social adjustment, unless they make provision for participation in social situations under competent guidance. The test of the success of the course will be that those who take it, not only know about the machinery of government, but that they have acquired habits of tolerance, unselfish service in group enterprises, and willingness to assume group responsibilities.

4. *Economic adjustment*: Demands a knowledge of the world's work and its workers that will be of value in making the choice of one's vocation. Involves training for that vocation and assistance in securing a job. Calls for the cultivation of wise habits of thrift in the saving, investment, and expenditure of money. There should be an attitude of respect for all socially valuable labor and a full realization that workers in all fields are dependent upon one another and should respect and support each other in their human rights.

When apprenticeship for the skilled crafts covered many years of training, and sons followed fathers in the same vocations generation after generation,

there was little need for training in vocational adjustment. But in these days, when old vocations are rapidly passing, and new vocations are developing overnight, the keynote of economic independence is ability to make quick and successful adjustments. Schools cannot possibly train for all of the three thousand or more vocations by which modern men make a living, but they can give accurate and timely information about vocations, and they can also give basic training for broad certain vocational fields, leaving specific training to be completed "on the job." By thinking of the necessity for economic adjustment, and raising its economic and vocational courses to a place of equal importance with other courses, the school can also do a great deal towards developing attitudes of respect for all honorable labor.

An inspection of the courses of study made by committees dealing with the practical and applied arts reveals the fact that much greater progress towards the "democratic" and "child-centered" type of curriculum has been achieved in this field than in the academic subjects.

5. *Aesthetic adjustment*: Involves training in the expression of one's ideas and emotions in a pleasing and artistic manner. Seeks to discover those possessing special gifts for such expression, to bring them out, and train them. Also demands training of all in appreciation of the world's masterpieces in the fine arts, music, and literature. Encourages the development of wholesome ways of spending leisure time by training for hobbies and avocations.

In an age when millions of workers are engaged at mechanical tasks, which do not call for one tenth of their powers of expression, provision for aes-



thetic adjustment as an outlet for unused talents is essential. The danger is that course-of-study committees in art, music, and literature will be so concerned with the technical aspects of training, that they fail to provide for the expression side. This tendency is reflected in the letter of a noted sculptor to a friend in which he said: "How is your son John getting along? Is he still interested in his drawing, or has the school killed it all out of him?" Such committees, in checking over their work, should ask themselves: "Is the primary emphasis in this course on the technical aspects of the work, or does it give proper scope to creative ideas, originality, and self-expression on the part of the students?" This question, honestly answered will help to shift the emphasis from that of "art for art's sake" to "art for man's sake," which is where it ought to be.

6. *Ethical and spiritual adjustment*: Seeks to unify life by a proper emphasis upon the worth of the individual to himself and to society. By helping the individual to adjust himself properly to the moral and spiritual forces at work in the world it helps to dignify, and add worth to personality. It motivates law observance and social service by exalting the altruistic spirit. It cultivates a tolerant attitude towards the religious practices and beliefs of others, while encouraging the individual to be loyal to his own religious ideals and convictions.

Character education has been claiming much attention in recent years. Various commissions have reported and prizes have been awarded for the best suggestions. It is rather generally agreed that "moral codes," and "formal courses of instruction," while possessing some value, cannot be relied upon to accomplish the great task of ethical and

spiritual adjustment. Moral and spiritual values are primarily acquired by contagion, or the inspiration of contact with a person possessing the qualities which we admire and seek to have for our own. Hence it is that the personal influence of the teacher is counted the greatest moral and spiritual force at work in the schools. The greatest contribution, therefore, which the teacher can make to the accomplishment of this educational aim is to assist the boy to find himself in relation to some great life purpose, to fire him with enthusiasm, and to incite him to effort. This can most frequently be done through the medium of the teacher's own subject, provided that subject is taught with a view to its value to the student as a means of mental and spiritual awakening.

In the above re-statement of the aims of secondary education the effort has been made to emphasize the social-democratic nature of the educative process, and to insist on the necessity for vitalized, first-hand experiences as one of the chief means of attaining these objectives. The point has also been stressed that the final test of the worth of a course of study is the effect it has in changing the behavior of the students so that there is measurable improvement in habits, attitudes, and ideals, in the fields of activity covered by the course in question.

The effort was made to so re-state the aims of secondary education that classroom teachers, acting on course-of-study-revision committees, could evaluate their own work by employing such a statement of aims as a kind of measur-

ing rod by which to check up on the content, procedures, and methods suggested in their reports.

Adjustment was adopted as the idea around which to formulate the re-statement of aims because it has been a basic principle in social progress and development. The improvement in one's ability to adjust himself to the changing conditions which surround him in the various fields of life activity is capable of fairly accurate objective measurement. Since there is need for such standards of

measurement of the progress made by curriculum committees it is suggested that a series of objective tests, covering the six fields above outlined, should be devised. The re-statement of aims in terms of adjustment has proved to be helpful to course-of-study committees in the cities where the writer is acting as curriculum consultant, and it is hoped that other committees will also find the suggestions to be of interest and value to them in their curriculum revision work.

## CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENT FOR UNUSUAL CHILDREN

HARRISON H. VAN COTT

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Van Cott is supervisor of the junior high schools of the State of New York and one of our most enthusiastic associate editors. He is putting "life" into the many junior high schools of his State by giving them his conception of adaptations which the schools should make to meet the needs of all the pupils.*

F. E. L.

Secondary schools are enrolling at the present time more types of pupils than ever before and the demand is being made by the tax-paying public that each type of pupil be served according to his needs and abilities. As a result, the single type of curriculum required of every boy and girl is giving way to a multiple-curriculum type of program by means of which selections and adjustments can be made in order that each individual child may be served. Such a practice cannot help but train pupils of all types for better living in a democracy.

In our junior high schools we find today curricula for all types of pupils. These curricula contain a few required subjects and many elective subjects. Generally the required subjects and activities include English, social studies,

mathematics, health, science, educational and vocational guidance, and extracurricular activities, including assembly and student-government participation; the elective subjects include art, music, homemaking, foreign language, commercial subjects, agriculture, and many subjects pursued in specially equipped shops such as woodworking, auto-mechanics, sheet metal, machine work, home mechanics, mechanical drawing, printing, etc., permeating the whole program is the training in character development, a paramount issue for each teacher and each pupil.

Such a curriculum content is evidence in itself that recognition is being given to the individual differences of pupils in the public schools and that an effort is being made to minister to their common needs and to satisfy their different

desires. By means of homogeneous grouping the attempt is also being made to treat them according to their abilities. Individual differences among pupils have been recognized for a long time by means of a variable passing mark, by the permission which is usually granted to repeat subjects, by the variations in pupil programs, and even by the fact that certain subjects are required by all in order perhaps to eliminate some individual differences so as to make them more easily subject to the demands of society. Until recently, however, no determined effort has been made to adapt curricula to the pupils who take them.

Theoretically, as many curricula as there are pupils should be possible because no two pupils are exactly alike. Practically such a provision cannot be made and neither is it necessary because fifty per cent of pupils are average, about twenty per cent are somewhat above average, another twenty per cent are somewhat below average, and at either extreme there are perhaps five per cent who might be called unusual. Among these are the geniuses, the exceptionally brilliant, the especially talented, and emotionally sensitive, the extremely slow, the highly nervous, the physical giants and weaklings, and the disciplinary problem pupils. For all these unusual adjustments should be made because they themselves are unusual. Their schools should help them find themselves even as it helps the others, although much more time and thought may be required for its accomplishment.

To illustrate some privileges which have been extended to unusual boys and girls without handicapping any one but with much profit to them, the following cases of curriculum adjustment are cited:

#### CASE I

A junior-high-school girl was discovered writing verse whenever an opportunity presented itself. As a matter of fact she was making opportunities to write verse, regardless of any assignment. She had a principal and an English teacher who were her friends and who were willing and anxious to encourage her in her efforts. Her curriculum was adjusted so that the verse she wrote was counted and accorded publicity in her school paper and she was encouraged in every way to develop her talent. One of her poems follows:

(Addressed to my baby niece, aged 2)

O I would make a song for you,  
A song of jeweled tones,  
A shining lilting melody  
All strung with precious stones.

The cadence of a silver stream  
That dances down a hill,  
The laughter of a leprechaun  
When all the woods are still.

The rustle of the butterfly  
That stoops to kiss the rose  
The fragrance and the tenderness  
Of every flower that grows.

O all of these I'd weave into  
A lullaby, my Sweet,  
And fly with you to some tall tree  
Away from town and street.

Where white winged ships go sailing by  
On clouds of blue and gold  
The ships that take the sleepy babes  
And rock them in the hold.



But—all that I can do is warm  
Your milk and toast your bread  
And scrub your little grimy hands  
And tuck you in your bed.

Then while you sleep I kneel and kiss  
Your quiet finger tips  
And all the wondrous songs I'd sing  
Are dumb behind my lips.

Your happy face, your skipping feet,  
Your noisy shouts of glee  
Are all the poems in the world,  
My Own, my Cherubie.

SHEILA DOOLEY.

John J. Pershing Junior High School,  
New York City

#### CASE II

A mother brought her boy before a junior-high-school principal and said, "Well, I have brought him to you to see if you can do anything with him. He has failed and been kicked out of two schools and I presume you will have trouble with him and will not keep him long. He is not much good." What an introduction for a parent to give; what a trying time for the boy! No wonder he hung his head. The principal was a friend to boys; he understood them, for he remembered that he had been one himself. He dismissed the mother as soon as he could so that he might talk with this boy, as he had never known of a boy in whom there was no good. And he said, "Son, tell me, isn't there anything that you like to do in school?" The reply came, "Just one thing, I like to draw and paint." Soon the boy found himself in the art room, soon he was drawing to his heart's content, soon he was working in oil, soon his paintings were being exhibited in the school corridors and he was one of the happiest boys in school.

All this happened some years ago. Today that boy is in senior high school and will soon graduate, after which he plans to enter, as soon as he can, a school of fine and applied art. The curriculum was adjusted to the boy and he soon adjusted himself to the curriculum. There is little doubt that some day this boy, with whom his mother found fault, will make the world a better place to live in because of his love for art.

#### CASE III

Tony was a discouraged, unhappy boy. He hated school, he couldn't get his English, his mathematics, or his history, and he wanted to quit school and go to work, but he could not do that, for he was not old enough. When I saw him soon after an adjustment had been made, he was contented and happy and a smile lighted his face as he told me that school had been changed for him. His principal had placed him in the woodworking shop and had relieved him for the time being from the subjects which had made him want to leave school. Probably he will not remain in school long and then he will earn with his hands. Was it not better to have a happy boy in the wholesome environment of the shop, learning how to do something than to have a miserable boy in a required subject and accomplishing nothing? As a consequence this same boy later became interested in other subjects in the school and was developing into a self-directive school citizen.

#### CASE IV

I shall never forget the case of an unusual girl who had suffered much

physically and had been unable to keep up with those of her age in elementary school, and when the others entered high school she had no credentials to admit her. She came to my office and asked to come in and to do what she might be able to do in the art classes just because she liked that work and wanted to be busy. She was in an unusual frame of mind because of circumstances which she had not been able to control. She was allowed to enter and do what she could. In due time she had taken all the art courses in the school program and enough work so that she entered an art school where she excelled. Today she is earning and happy with her art work. Entrance requirements were waived, but the spirit of an eager adolescent girl was renewed.

## CASE V

A teacher of mechanical drawing once brought to my attention the case of a high-school boy who was unusually slow in the production of his mechanical-drawing plates, but the quality of his work was fine if he could proceed at his own speed. He mastered principles and he understood his work thoroughly. He was given the time which he needed to complete his work and encouraged to try to increase his speed as much as possible. He produced some beautiful plates and was rated principally upon the quality of his work rather than upon the quantity. After graduating he wrote back to his mechanical-drawing teacher, thanking him for his patience with him and telling him that he did more for him than any other teacher in school.

## CASE VI

A giant of a boy physically was in the eighth year of junior high school but unhappy because he was out of his social group. He was a man in stature, in age he was a late adolescent. To be with the smaller boys and girls of his group made him antagonistic; he was failing his school work and becoming surly and rude; he was skipping school often and was a problem case. One day while wandering about he spied an electric welder at work and became interested. He remembered there was a welding shop near his school and in one of the vocational schools. The next day he went to his principal and asked if he might learn to weld. The request was granted, although welding was not in his prescribed course. From the day he began his work in the welding shop he did not miss a day in school or in his other classes. His school life had become interesting for him; he was beginning to be a useful school citizen and finding himself.

It would be possible to describe other cases of curriculum adjustment, which have been made for unusual pupils and which have proved to be worth while for the pupils concerned. There will always be unusual pupils in our schools. By them unusual things may be achieved. Should we not always ask ourselves this question when dealing with an unusual pupil? What can be done for this particular pupil which will help him to grow into a happy and useful citizen? The school is a directive agency and can compel no ultimate outcomes. As the child or man thinketh in his heart so is he and wise, patient, sympathetic

teachers are always eager so to direct the efforts of their boys and girls that they may arrive at some worthy goal, believing that there is a work in the world which they can do with profit to all and with satisfaction to themselves. To that end it behooves every one who is working with growing boys and girls to think seriously about procedures which have many times been thought beneficial for all pupils, in order to fit those procedures only to those who will profit by them and to devise other procedures for the unusual. The following questions are worth considering:

1. Is there any subject in the curriculum which every pupil should be compelled to take under all circumstances?
2. For what type of unusual pupil should a course be unusually enriched in content?
3. May not one subject as well as another become a valuable medium for the development of the unusual pupil if he chooses it in preference to a subject he dislikes?
4. Should special diplomas be granted unusual pupils who satisfactorily finish some school curriculum and conduct themselves as worthy school citizens?
5. Should the talented pupil be encouraged to develop his talents even to the extent of omitting

some of the required work of the secondary school and be given, at the end of his course, a diploma?

6. Should brilliant pupils be provided with enriched courses and be expected to accomplish much more than their less brilliant school-mates?
7. Should unusual pupils receive unusual amounts of credit for unusual amounts of work accomplished?
8. Should an unusually nervous pupil be compelled to take and pass a final written examination if his classwork is satisfactory?
9. When is it justifiable to break a school rule in arranging a pupil's curriculum?

Unusual pupils must assume similar responsibilities to the usual pupils; they must live and participate in the life of the same democracy; they need good health in order that they may live efficiently; they need more careful guidance and they should be expected to contribute to the society in which they live. The school curriculum is the means, in the arrangement of courses extending through a period of years, whereby pupils may grow physically, mentally, and morally into increasingly efficient social units. It is therefore the curriculum which should be adjusted so that each pupil may grow according to his ability.



# THE GUIDANCE SCHEME IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS OF TAMPA

E. L. ROBINSON

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Robinson is director of high schools in Tampa, Florida, and a booster of the junior high schools of his city. Dr. Roemer, one of our associate editors, gave Mr. Robinson some suggestions in the preparation of this article. While Mr. Robinson and Dr. Roemer make no claim for the uniqueness of the plan, they have given us an account of a concrete procedure which embodies the best practices in junior-high-school guidance.*

F. E. L.

In June, 1925, when one of the writers of this article was appointed director of high schools of Tampa and Hillsborough County, a complete program of reorganization of junior high schools was launched. The reorganization included: a broader curriculum; a wider choice of studies; a complete health- and physical-education program; the introduction of "broadening-and-finding" courses; a material expansion of extracurricular activities; and an attempt at guidance.

This article will deal with the guidance work of Tampa and its relation to the general plan of administration and instruction in the junior high schools. In this article the word guidance will be used to include not only vocational guidance but guidance as applied to all phases of the development of junior-high-school pupils.

The guidance plan now being developed in Tampa is merely an attempt to coordinate and systematize the many and various schemes, projects, and plans for helping each pupil to be most benefited by his junior-high-school course. There is nothing new in this plan and in no respect is it to be treated as a completely worked out program.

There are in Tampa seven junior high schools varying in size from 500 to 1200 pupils with different types of buildings and equipment, and with pupils coming from different types of homes, with varying backgrounds of culture and opportunity. Two of these schools are composed almost entirely of pupils of the Latin races. This suggests at once that the great purpose of these schools is to Americanize these pupils. In the same way schools serving pupils from the communities of more cultured families have problems of a different nature but quite as important.

There seem to be two well-recognized plans of guidance in the junior high schools. One is to have a man or a woman or both to act as special adviser or counselor to pupils in solving their individual problems, thus helping them in choosing the right line of conduct, the best course of study, and, to some extent, the vocation they seem best fitted for. If it is financially possible to secure some man or woman trained for this almost superhuman task, this undoubtedly is a very good scheme. But in the schools of Tampa where the cost of operation, due to finances, is

necessarily only about \$45.00 per pupil per year in the junior high schools, as compared with two or three times that amount in many city systems, we could not financially afford such a member of the faculty. Consequently, we looked for another way of filling this need. We adopted this plan: In each of the seven junior high schools of Tampa we placed a principal, always a man, and an assistant principal, always a woman, with such duties of administration divided between them as to allow the principal to be head of all the guidance work of the school, himself dealing with special boy problems, and the assistant principal dealing with special girl problems. We therefore decided that to fulfill to the best advantage the great purpose of the junior high school which can be stated in the one word, "guidance," it would be necessary for the teachers as a group to be led to recognize this new phase of their duty to the pupil, and so to organize and carry out their classroom work as to give the entire school the wholesome atmosphere of the guidance program.

The plan in effect in Tampa, therefore, may be briefly outlined in three main divisions as follows:

(1) The principal, in all cases a man, deals with the special problems of the boys individually and collectively and the assistant principal, in all cases a woman, maintains the same relations with the girls.

(2) The curriculum and the whole organization of the school is worked out with the guidance idea in mind.

(3) The whole school has guidance as the keynote of all activities and all

teachers are expected to participate. An explanation of each of these divisions follows:

#### GENERAL PHASES OF ADMINISTRATION

(1) The principal and the assistant principal deal with all special pupil cases that call for broader treatment or higher authority than the individual teacher can exercise. They also must act as advisers with whom the teachers may consult in regard to their particular problems and to whom they may refer cases when they feel unable to deal with them properly. The principal and assistant principal are expected also through faculty meetings and in every other way possible to lead the teachers to understand better, and to make a wider use of their opportunities of guidance that may come to them in their classroom work, and in all their associations with the pupils.

#### ORGANIZATION FOR GUIDANCE

(2) In the organization of the school the following special arrangements have been made with the great purpose of guidance in view in all of them:

(a) *Special Classes.* There have been organized in two of the junior high schools special elementary classes dealing with problem children. These classes are under the care of some of the ablest teachers of the system and are located in the junior-high-school buildings so that the pupils may take advantage of the special types of instruction offered in junior high school, such as shopwork, home economics, music, art, physical education, etc. The special teachers, with the coöperation

of the principals and such other teachers as they may call on, have thus been able to make it possible for many pupils to continue their schooling even after the age limit of compulsory attendance has been passed.

It is planned as soon as possible to organize similar classes of maladjusted junior-high-school pupils in the senior high schools.

(b) *Broadening and Finding Courses.* There have been organized a large number of so-called "B & F" courses (broadening and finding). These courses run nine weeks or one quarter of a year and every pupil in the seventh and eighth grades is required to be registered in one of them at all times during his seventh and eighth years. These courses consist of work in the various shops, vocational information, simple business training, all phases of home economics, the various crafts, library work, introductory foreign-language study, special health work, etc. The number and kind of courses offered depend on the size of the school, equipment, and special qualifications of teachers. They vary, naturally, at different times during the year. The purpose of these "short courses" is to give a bird's-eye view of a particular line of study, or the demands of a particular vocation, and also to broaden the knowledge and experience of the pupils by introducing them to as many different phases of life activities as possible. They are thus better able to choose their future courses of study and to decide, when the time comes, on their life vocations.

(c) *Home-Room Organization.* The home room is organized as the center around which the whole life of the school should revolve. It is a social and political union organized under the guidance of a teacher in such a way that the pupils assume in a large measure the control of their school relations and gain splendid experience in leadership and followship. There are five short periods, thirty minutes long each week for home-room, assembly, club and other extracurricular activities. This is known as the "activities period."

(d) *Club Program.* Clubs and all other extracurricular activities are planned with a definite purpose, not simply of furnishing entertainment alone, but also of helping the pupils to know more about the various phases of real life and thus be able to plan better for their own place in it when school is over.

(e) *Office Records and Reports.* Complete records are kept and are available for the use of teachers in their work with the pupils. These records cover not simply scholarship, but also results of tests of all sorts, and particularly records of special and peculiar talents and abilities of individual pupils in their social and moral behavior.

#### EVERY TEACHER A GUIDANCE TEACHER

(3) The third phase of our organization is that every teacher should be a guidance teacher. This, of course, is the most difficult of all to accomplish. On the other hand, it offers greater possibilities than any other phase of our plan. It is especially difficult for older



teachers who have been very successful in the traditional form of school organization to become adapted to an entirely different attitude demanded of the teacher under this different form of organization. However, that this can be done is evidenced by the example of numbers of our most useful teachers who are very enthusiastic in the working out of our present undertaking.

Considerable success resulted from the above plan, but it was soon evident that it was inadequate to solve the guidance problem, unless the principal and assistant principal could have much more intelligent help from all the teachers. Consequently there was adopted as the ultimate objective, "Every teacher shall be a guidance teacher, and every phase of our organization shall have a guidance feature." As one relief measure, vocational information classes were organized and added to our broadening and finding courses, and as many others as possible were added in which the guidance feature was prominent. In so doing it was always to be remembered that vocational guidance is only one phase of the great problem of guidance, which we believe to be a process of helping pupils to find and develop themselves, mentally, morally, and physically along the lines which shall lead to happy and useful living.

But a new problem arose. With greater liberty of conduct and choice of studies by the pupils came a much greater need for wise and effective guidance. As stated previously, the term "guidance" in our conception of it includes guidance in conduct; charac-

ter development; habits of study, of work, and of recreation; choice of studies and courses; the number of years to be given to school; and as a resultant of all this, a vocational choice.

It soon became very evident that such a program as this demanded special training and ability on the part of the junior-high-school teachers; and that this training must be provided for them after they have begun their service in our schools. It was at this point that we turned to the University of Florida for some help on our teacher-training problem. After a number of conferences with Dr. Joseph Roemer, professor of secondary education and high-school visitor of the University, the details of a course in Junior-High-School Guidance were worked out and given by him through the General Extension Division. In this way many teachers got college credit for degrees, certificate extension, etc., that proved helpful.

The principals and assistant principals of the seven junior high schools of the system and about 60 teachers took the course.

Dr. Roemer had associated with him C. Phil Peters and Miss Elizabeth McAllister, who assisted him in the work. Mr. Peters, who is principal of the George Washington Junior High School of Tampa, has had very fine training in vocational guidance and many years of experience in part-time and evening-school work as teacher and director. Miss McAllister in addition to several years' teaching experience in the St. Petersburg Senior High School is taking her graduate work in voca-

tional guidance at the University of Indiana. These three handled the course and carried out the project outlined in this article.

This is, of course, but a meager outline of all that is involved in the guidance program in our junior high schools. This plan has been working long enough in Tampa to prove that where teachers are willing to accept the responsibilities involved in the guidance idea, and to train themselves for meeting these responsibilities, the results wholly justify the undertaking.

As we said in the beginning, this is not a new plan. There is no part of it that is new except the recognition of the responsibility for guidance that rests upon the faculty of the junior high school, and the attempt to direct the instruction, the home-room work, and, in fact, the whole organization towards the end of guiding the pupils into the best that life has to offer.

In bringing Dr. Roemer in for inten-

sive teacher training, we feel we took a progressive step. For, in the final analysis of our plan, the teacher is the key to the situation. On him rests the success or failure of the scheme. Consequently, our first step was to train the teachers for their newer undertaking fraught with so much possibility for good.

May I say, in conclusion, that the large number of teachers who took the course, who are filled with an enthusiastic desire to put into practice the things taught and to continue to prepare themselves for greater skill in guidance is ample evidence of the worthwhileness of the project. We believe, in Tampa, that the solution of our guidance problem lies in the direction of every teacher's sharing the responsibility of the guidance program in her duties as classroom instructor, home-room teacher, and sponsor of some extracurricular activity in the life of the school.

## THE JANE ADDAMS SCHOOL OF CLEVELAND

S. EVA WINGERT

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Miss Wingert is principal of the Jane Addams School, Cleveland, Ohio. This school, which is a special school, enrolls about five hundred girls who are not succeeding in the regular school curriculum. She has developed vocational courses and a placement bureau together with a counseling program that is one of the most delightful and practical programs of education for girls of junior- and senior-high-school age in the United States.*

M. A. N.

The American girl is today attracting much attention. She is an individual with ideas of her own, and she has a desire to make those ideas play some part in her own education. It seems impossible to organize a high school in which every one will have an equal chance to participate, for there always

will be the diffident, the shy, and the less fortunate ones. So in this day of specialized education Cleveland, Ohio, has seen fit to organize a school for girls, whose aim is to train and fit girls for real life.

The Jane Addams School for Girls is maintained by the Cleveland Board

of Education to meet the needs of the high-school-age girls who are forced by economic necessity to leave school as early as the law will permit; for those who are discouraged with the academic subjects; and also for those who have been retarded by foreign birth or by illness. The school has an enrollment of four hundred. The distribution of intelligence is fairly normal, ranging from three girls with an I.Q. below 80 to the highest two, with an I.Q. of 130. Any girl desiring to change from the regular high-school course to this specialized training, which will fit her for one of several occupations, must be recommended by the principal of her school. She must be at least fourteen years of age, and have completed the seventh grade. In order that the school be ensured of the right home coöperation, a teacher visits the home to find out if the parents are willing for the girl to make the transfer and also if they will permit her to remain the two years.

The Jane Addams School has sought to modify the course of study, improve methods of instruction, and introduced the Dalton Plan, so that the girls might receive in their two years of intensive study a thorough understanding of their selected course. The teachers are chosen with care, not only in regard to their knowledge of the subjects which they are to teach but in their ability to present the work. They realize the need of sympathy, tact, and a mutual understanding of the problems of each individual, and they also realize the need of adapting the quantity of in-

struction matter and the methods to the capacity of each girl.

The Dalton Plan is used and by this method of instruction each girl goes through the work by "contracts." She receives definite mimeographed assignment sheets, which she completes at her own rate of speed. When she has completed one satisfactorily she receives the next assignment. By this method the girl who enters school late does not disrupt the work of the class, nor is she handicapped by starting into the middle of the subject. She can begin with the first contract. The Dalton Plan has many advantages in assisting the girls to find themselves. The conference method enables the teacher to know each individual and to encourage the slow girls. She may give a word of advice to those who need it, and she may lead the girls to have higher ideals, better living, and health.

The program of studies of the school consists of three curricula, from which the girls may choose. The girls are given a six weeks' try-out in the courses they select, and if any one becomes discouraged, dissatisfied, or fails at the end of this period, she is advised to change to another course.

The curricula are as follows:

#### *Dressmaking Curriculum*

##### First Year—First Semester

	Periods per week
Sewing I .....	15
Home Nursing and Social Hygiene I.....	5
Mathematics I .....	5
English I .....	5
Physical Education .....	2
Music I .....	2



# 102 JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE

	Periods per week		Periods per week
<b>First Year—Second Semester</b>		Art II .....	10
Sewing II .....	15	Music II .....	2
Home Nursing and Social Hygiene II.....	5	Physical Education .....	2
English II .....	5	(Thirty periods of laundry are required each semester the first year.)	
Mathematics II .....	5	<b>Second Year—First Semester</b>	
Physical Education .....	2	<i>Required</i>	
Music II .....	2	Cafeteria and Tea-Room Service III.....	20
(Thirty periods of laundry are required each semester the first year.)		English III .....	5
<b>Second Year—First Semester</b>		Mathematics III .....	3
<i>Required</i>		Civics I .....	2
Dressmaking III .....	12	Physical Education .....	2
Costume Design I .....	3	<i>Elect one subject</i>	
Mathematics III .....	3	Music III .....	2
English III .....	5	Shampooing and Manicuring I.....	2
Civics I .....	2	Nursery I .....	2
Physical Education .....	2	Retail Selling I .....	2
<i>Elect 10 Periods</i>		<i>Required</i>	
Nursery I .....	3	Cafeteria and Tea-Room Service IV.....	20
Music III .....	2	English IV .....	5
Art I .....	10	Mathematics IV .....	2
Shampooing and Manicuring I.....	5	Civics II .....	3
Retail Selling I .....	5	Physical Education .....	2
<b>Second Year—Second Semester</b>		<i>Elect one subject</i>	
Dressmaking and Power Machine IV....	15	Music IV .....	2
Costume Design II .....	2	Shampooing and Manicuring II.....	2
Mathematics IV .....	2	Nursery II .....	2
English IV .....	5	Retail Selling II .....	2
Civics II .....	3	<b>Office-Training Curriculum</b>	
Physical Education .....	2	<b>First Year—First Semester</b>	
<i>Elect at least 6 Periods</i>		<i>Required</i>	
Art II .....	10	Typing I .....	5
Nursery II .....	2	Home Nursing and Social Hygiene I.....	5
Music IV .....	1	Mathematics I .....	5
Shampooing and Manicuring II.....	2	English I .....	5
Retail Selling II .....	5	Music I .....	2
<b>Commercial-Cooking Curriculum</b>		Physical Education .....	2
<b>First Year—First Semester</b>		<i>Elect one</i>	
Cooking I .....	10	Cooking I .....	10
Home Nursing and Social Hygiene I.....	5	Sewing I .....	15
Mathematics I .....	5	<b>First Year—Second Semester</b>	
English I .....	5	<i>Required</i>	
Art I .....	10	Typing II .....	5
Physical Education .....	2	Filing I .....	5
Music I .....	2	Home Nursing and Social Hygiene II.....	5
<b>First Year—Second Semester</b>		English II .....	5
Cooking II .....	10	Mathematics II .....	5
Home Nursing and Social Hygiene II....	5	Music II .....	2
Mathematics II .....	5	Physical Education .....	2
English II .....	5		

	Periods per week
<i>Elect one</i>	
Cooking II .....	10
Sewing II .....	10
(Thirty periods of laundry are required each semester the first year.)	

## Second Year—First Semester

<i>Required</i>	
Typing III .....	5
Filing II .....	5
Mathematics III .....	3
English III .....	5
Civics I .....	2
Physical Education .....	2

<i>Elect one</i>	
Cooking III .....	15
Sewing III .....	15

## Second Year—Second Semester

Typing .....	5
Filing .....	5
Office Practice .....	3
Mathematics .....	2
Civics .....	3
English .....	5

<i>Elect one</i>	
Cooking IV .....	15
Sewing IV .....	15

The dressmaking curriculum aims to develop methods, attitudes, and technique which will meet the requirements of the industrial world; secondly, to build up self-confidence and the ability for independent work, enabling the girl to plan and make clothing for herself and others, and lastly to develop good taste in dress along with the ability to judge materials and to select clothing suited to her own personality, her economic condition, and her business. The second year of work includes costume design, the modeling of patterns in miniature and full size, home and commercial dressmaking, and power-machine operation on an industrial basis.

The commercial-cooking curriculum aims to teach the basic principles of cooking by means of actual practice.

Emphasis is placed on the selection of food, economy in buying, cost accounting and skill in handling food materials in quantity. The tea-room and cafeteria service aims, first, to train the girls for positions of responsibility in commercial cafeterias and tea rooms; second, to develop skill in manipulation of food materials; and, third, to bring about a greater appreciation of the importance of quantity cookery to the general public.

The office-training curriculum consists of typing and filing for which the Library Bureau method is used. Actual problems which include work with files, letters, and the operation of the telephone switchboard make the course practical.

The study of English is based on the outline of study used in all the Cleveland high schools. It is not confined to what is generally termed business English; it has its cultural side as well. The study of spelling, grammar, and letter writing is a means to the end of lucid self-expression. Spelling becomes a current-event lesson or is used to impart general knowledge to a class.

The mathematics and civics follow the Dalton Plan, which proves satisfactory in overcoming the age and grade differences in classes. The work is assigned by contract which is preceded and followed by conferences with the teachers.

The nursery subject is an elective in the second year. Children between the ages of two and four years are brought in from the homes of the neighborhood, and the girls are made responsible for the children from the time they get

them from their homes until they are returned. The girls learn to play and and to tell stories to the children, as well as how to solve some minor disciplinary problems.

Home nursing and social hygiene is a required subject in all of the courses. Through the coöperation of the home visitor, the school doctor, and the teacher, the course is adjusted to meet the needs of each girl. Questions pertaining to right living, life problems, defects, and good health are answered in these classes. In connection with this subject a beauty parlor has been equipped, in order to train the girls in shampooing and manicuring. It is by this means that much is accomplished to improve their personal appearance.

The girls are required to travel great distances, for the enrollment of the school is not restricted to a certain district, so it has been the policy of the Jane Addams school to have no extra-curricular activities after school hours. The first period each Tuesday morning has been set aside for clubs. Each girl makes her own selection and the list of clubs is similar to those in any high school. The names of the clubs indicate the various interests of the twenty-one nationalities represented: Four Bridge Clubs, Party-Game Club,

Etiquette Club, Waxcraft Club, Flower-and-Favor Club, Dramatic Club, Handkerchief Club, Pillow Club, Game Club, Journalism Club, and three Girl-Reserve Clubs.

When a girl has completed her course and is over sixteen years of age she is placed in the work for which she has trained. This work is done by the placement teacher, who is in close touch with all the business opportunities of the city. All the positions for part-time and permanent positions to which the girls are recommended are investigated and the initial wages are agreed upon by the employees and the teacher. At frequent intervals the teacher calls on the girls at their work in order to learn of their progress. This follow-up work is done until the girls are eighteen years of age. Many of the girls return to the school for advice and to visit, even beyond the two years of supervision.

Once a year in May the Jane Addams School holds graduation exercises and issues certificates to all the girls who have successfully completed their courses and who have had a minimum of four months of successful experience in the position for which they have trained. In the 1929 class there were one hundred and thirty-eight who received certificates.

## TRAINING THE TALENTED FOR SUCCESSFUL CAREERS

ARTHUR M. SEYBOLD

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *When dealing with the problem of articulating the several administrative units of our schools, we are likely to forget that we may not be articulating the work of the schools with life outside. Mr. Seybold, one of our associate editors and principal of the Thomas Jefferson Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio, thinks that adaptations may be made so that at least the talented may move from school into the world outside without much friction.*

F. E. L.

In the public schools we have been stressing the acquisition of facts and

skills for many years. When our students have graduated we have de-

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mandated that they should have acquired a specific amount of abstract learning. We have asked that they be prepared for the university, for the factory, and for the office. The information and the skills, which life in these new environments would demand, were carefully studied and taught so that our students could approach the experiences which awaited them after they had left the public schools with some degree of confidence and assurance of success.

This plan of learning has been administered thoroughly and efficiently for a great many years. And the progress which we have made in the art of passing useful factual information to our youth must not be hampered by any vague dreams of new, easy avenues of instruction. What has been mastered must be recorded, must be retained for the benefit of all coming generations.

But a new movement has begun to be felt. This movement has been slowly gaining strength in many ways. In some schools it has taken the name of "progressive education," and has found expression in socialized recitations and in student council activities. In other institutions the movement has gone forward under the name of "activities programs," in which student activity in a pleasing, stimulating environment is sought as a desirable end. And in other institutions the new approach is denominated "the child-centered school," where an attempt is made to focus the attention of education upon the child rather than upon the thing to be learned, and where individual development rather than impersonal mass development is the goal. There are

many new names and many new programs proposed but the fundamental ideas of all of these new plans are very much alike. All of the new schemes, whatever we may desire to call them, seem to center in the study of children as we find them now, rather than in the information we think children should know when they have grown up.

The child has ceased to be an impersonal factor. He has gradually assumed a rôle of growing importance in our modern social life. The new problems which face our youth have developed from the freedom given to childhood in America; it is very clearly a direct result of the new idea in education as it now emanates from our schools.

There are many who hold that this conception of the development of youth is all wrong, that we should cling tenaciously to tradition and that we should repress youthful enthusiasms which may destroy and eventually topple over our present social structure.

It cannot be denied that there is an element of danger in this new point of view, but the benefits to be gained by the liberation rather than the repression of youthful spirit far outweigh the hazards which we now encounter. I am not afraid that unrepressed spirits will run amuck; rather do I rejoice in the unexpected achievements which I observe in many schools that have broken with tradition.

One of the most effective avenues of creative release is found in class projects. If our modern school did not attempt anything beyond this operative device its existence would be justified.

In a social-studies class which I observed recently I found a group of children engaged in a study of transportation. The class was divided into committees and each division was studying a topic in which an initial interest had given the stimulus for research work. One group was arranging an exposition of primitive means of locomotion and another was carrying the history of transportation through the middle ages to our modern Industrial Revolution. Here the story was given to another committee which took the narrative through the development of the motorcar. And a most enthusiastic group was tracing the development of the airplane. In each of these divisions I found students who were skillful in the organization of subject matter, students who were born executives but who might not be signalized because of scholastic attainment, and students who were talented in art. All of these types were given opportunities for self expenditure in tasks which were exhilarating to them.

But the modern school is not content with the development found in units of subject matter. The new school has been seeking to discover specific talent in limited groups of children, and to cultivate and develop this talent in a few special classes. The orchestra, the band, the glee club, and news-writing groups have now been accepted in the regular program of classes for daily work. Most of our schools can now name their best musicians, their most talented singers, their reporters, and their cartoonists.

Club activities scheduled in the regular program also give a most excellent

avenue for special interests and individual talents. All schools have their art clubs, their drama clubs, their sewing clubs, camp-cooking clubs, their hobby clubs—almost every detour found along the highway of human interests has found expression in some type of school club and has its quota of devotees through its pleasant by-paths.

But our clubs, like our specific projects in subject matter, do not provide adequate expression for our talented children. Every educational institution has its restless personalities who chafe against the treadmill of tradition. They refuse to march with the crowd. They yearn for a fuller life than that which may be found in mass thinking. They are different; they will not be regimented into type or conventional molds. Give them a task in which they have an opportunity of developing an innate ability and the miracle has been performed. A new individual, confident, erect, proud of living in a world of children, has been discovered. There is no more wonderful metamorphosis than this, no more beautiful miracle in the realm of science or religion.

Clubs often provide this avenue of release. But our clubs and our classroom activities do not contain groups large enough to give a child of special talents an audience for adequate appreciation. The average club will contain only thirty or thirty-five students. The achievement of the child actor, the writer, the dancer, the photographer, or the musician is too often limited to this small audience. And unlike the members of the athletic teams or the editors of the school paper, many stu-

dents of unusual talent, in lines of endeavor accepted by civilization as belonging to special individuals gifted in these particular fields, have no opportunity to discover and to develop these talents.

Why can the school not give community expression to these talents? Adults know that Remington painted pictures of western life, that Otis Skinner has achieved unusual success on the stage, and that Edison, in his laboratories, has rendered inestimable service to mankind. Now, the Remingtons, the Skinners, and the Edisons of the next generation are in the schools of America at the present time. Are they giving these new artists, these new actors, these new scientists opportunities to discover their talents and then to furnish avenues for the development of these talents? Very few schools are doing this. It is the occasional sympathetic teacher, who finds the child with talents within fields in which the teacher himself is interested, who registers a degree of success. Many people of power pass through school systems with no responsive note of recognition, without having been discovered even by their own companions.

I may be pursuing a vain dream. It may be that children do not possess unusual abilities when they are young. It may be that Tennyson was not a poet when he was a child, that he developed and perfected his art after he became an adult. But when I read into the lives of our great men and women I constantly encounter early evidences of power within the fields in which they later showed great strength, and I am also continually chagrined because so

many of our leaders found so little which stimulated, which satisfied them in our schools.

I believe that we should advance our opportunities for child development beyond the possibilities now offered in the diversified curriculum, in the club activities, and in the project programs of our modern schools. Every child is not a potential Edison, but every child is a potential something and should be given a rich, diversified environment in which he might explore every talent and every power which he possesses. And when the thing which he can do best has been discovered, he should be given an opportunity of finding adequate expression for this power. This should be provided as a daily side line, a tentative side line, a sort of tributary interest to be experimented with while the facts and fundamentals of education are being mastered.

But when pupils of special ability or talents in particular fields have been discovered in these tentative avenues of expression, these children should be recognized and they should be given an environment in which their talents would be extended the fullest opportunity of development.

Let us see how different types of ability may be discovered in any public school and how adjustments may be made within the school program for children of talent. In the adult world we find men and women who become great while pursuing activities which may be classified within limited fields. We have writers, scientists, artists, musicians, business executives, and statesmen. The list might be extended indefinitely, but most of our great men



and women have found notable work which might be placed within a limited scope of activities.

The school should take cognizance of these avenues and should seek to provide stimulating experiences for picked, future leaders within known and accepted channels of creative expression.

Adolescence is a period of endless questioning, a period of insatiable discovery, a period of intense emotional development. The determinant characteristics which will rule the future life of the individual are most frequently culled out of the chaos, out of the stresses and the changes found within the youth of every boy and girl. Instead of checking the thirst for self-realization with the conventions of our complex modern civilization, with the constant demands that our children be adequately prepared with the accepted tool subjects of information, could we not, at the same time, make provision for the discovery of talent within an accepted list of expected achievements?

Every seventh grade has a great number of boys and girls who are potential dancers. No performance of Pavlowa or Ruth St. Denis is more pleasing, more graceful, more spontaneous than that given by a group of seven B girls. Children at this age are natural in their representations of artistic illusions. They picture lyric poetry or descriptive music with a grace and beauty that is quite beyond the reach of the artist of maturer years. Let the most enthusiastic devotees of this type of artistic expression have daily instruction within the school day. Most of the children thus engaged will never become dancers, but all who participate will never lose

the grace, the symmetry of muscular development, or the delight of these dancing experiences. And a few may discover that this form of expression will give them infinite delight throughout their entire lives. And there may be one genius in the group who will receive inspiration for a career.

In a similar manner a creative writing class might be assembled within the membership of grade sections in any large junior or senior high school. The English teachers in English classes can easily find one or two children who see, who feel, who write more ably and more interestingly than the other members of the groups in which they are placed. These children of special ability as writers should be given daily encouragement and instruction. There is nothing more stimulating than the grouping of people of like talents together. This is true of children just as it is true of adults. Common tasks, common discussions, and an opportunity for the exercise of known talents is one of the most stimulating devices of intense activity known. An appreciated success in any artistic field will encourage effort in a manner to be gained by no other operative device. Let these classes receive instruction by gifted teachers interested in creative writing. Let the poems, the plays, the essays, and the stories written by the children be published and sold in the school. As with the dancing classes, many students will pass to other avenues of interest. But the strength gained by the exercise of writing will never be lost. And many children here, also, will find that they have an avenue for effective expression of an artistic talent which, but

for the inspiration of the writing classes, would have remained dormant.

In a similar manner art classes, science groups, societies of musicians, drama groups, executive leader groups might be formed—any classes which would make provision for the exercise of talent within an accepted list of expected achievement.

But care should be constantly exercised to keep the standards of the specialized groups high. Only those of recognized ability should be permitted to enter. This whole program should be elective, it should be stimulated by many auditorium exercises; and it should receive the most hearty cooperation from both parents and teachers.

If such a program were pursued in all of our junior high schools and our

senior high schools we would not suffer a diminution of strength in our discipline subjects. We could retain our present skill in our administration of the tool subjects and our grip upon the actualities of life. And, at the same time, we would place our children in an environment of wonder, an environment of awe, and an environment which would provide opportunities for the exercise of the highest idealism. Hidden potentialities would be discovered, and new life purposes would be formed. Many of our talented youth would not grope for a decade in a maze of experimental failures, but because they had found early opportunities for the exercise of recognized abilities they would begin at once to train themselves for successful careers.

## A PROJECT IN TEACHING MORALS AND MANNERS IN A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

JOSEPH ROEMER

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *Dr. Roemer is professor of secondary education and high-school visitor at the University of Florida. He is also chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Southern Association and an associate editor of the JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CLEARING HOUSE. We published an interesting article by Dr. Roemer in the September number.*

F. E. L.

It is one thing to philosophize about the social and moral outcomes of the various extracurricular activities, and another actually to organize and teach in such a way as to secure some of these ends. The writer feels that it is not enough to set up the philosophy of the matter, as important as that is, and then stop. He feels that the next step is just as important and perhaps more difficult; namely, assist teachers to find and organize materials with which to carry out this philosophy.

In his work as high-school visitor for

the University of Florida, the writer spent considerable time and effort working with one of the junior-high-school teachers<sup>1</sup> of the State on a broadening and finding course in morals and manners. The experiment was so successful that an outline of the course is presented here in the hope that it will stimulate some interest in this important field, and prove helpful to some one.

<sup>1</sup> Mrs. E. L. Kuykendall, Head, Department of Home Economics, Memorial Junior High School, Tampa, Florida.

This was a section of thirty-five girls from the eighth grade. Very few books and materials were available and, consequently, the teacher had to be rather resourceful in securing her materials of instruction. A few single copies of books were available; as a result no textbook was in the hands of the pupils. Here again the teacher was thrown on her own resources for working the matter out. With this explanation as a background, the outline of the course follows:

#### OUTLINE OF A COURSE IN MORALS AND MANNERS

##### References

1. *Everyday Manners for American Boys and Girls*, by the faculty of the South Philadelphia High School for Girls. The Macmillan Company.
  2. *Good Manners and Right Conduct*, Volumes I and II, by Gertrude McVeen. D. C. Heath and Company.
  3. *Etiquette*, by Emily Post. Funk and Wagnalls Company.
- And other books of etiquette.

##### Aims of Course

1. To give a girl an appreciation of the rights of others.
2. To train her in the habits of courtesy.
3. To develop ease and confidence in meeting and conversing with others to the end that she may become a more pleasant member of the home and community.

##### Time Given for This Course

1. Nine weeks with five fifty-minute periods weekly.

##### Introduction

Why are we interested in learning good manners? Stimulate an interest in work by having a discussion as to the value of knowing how to act in all places and circumstances. Have children write a list of things which they would like to know. For example, how to act at a formal tea or reception, how to act on a Pullman, etc. Have a committee select from these lists the topics the class desires to study. The following are the topics studied:

- I. *Good Manners in Public Places.* (Note) Have children keep a notebook. Call it their Book of Good Manners. Have them

write in this book the things learned in class in form of rules of etiquette. Pictures may be mounted as illustrations.

##### 1. On the Street

- a. Have reports from etiquette books, etc., on conduct on the street.
- b. Have class observe and relate in class the good and bad manners they saw downtown.
- c. Write in notebook some rules to observe when on the street. Let children make rules in their own words, then class vote on their adoption.
- d. Have class watch each other and report any bad manners they see.
- e. Ask children what elements of good conduct are shown on the street. For example, politeness, courtesy, kindness, friendliness, modesty.
- f. Have stories brought to class and read illustrating any of these, or have children write original stories or true stories and read to class.
- g. Quotations may be taught on these such as "*Politeness* is to do and say the kindest thing in the kindest way." *Courtesy*—"Life is not so short but there is always time for courtesy." *Kindness*—"There is nothing so kindly as kindness, nothing so royal as truth." *Friendliness*—"A friend in need is a friend indeed." *Modesty*—"Modesty is one of the loveliest of graces."
- h. Proper dress and how people are judged by it.

##### 2. In Trolley Cars

- a. Follow same plan as a, b, c, d, e, in above. A good opportunity is given to watch the manners on the cars coming and going to and from school. Have reports in class.
- b. Elements of good manners such as honesty, gentleness, unselfishness, sympathy. *Sympathy*—"He who laughs at another's woes finds few friends and many foes." Stories or experiences showing how sympathy may be given on the car, etc., may be called for and given in class. *Honesty*—"Honesty is the best policy." Stories showing how one may be dishonest by not paying their fare, or by taking wrong change, or by dropping something besides money in slot machines. *Gentleness*—"The gentle mind by gentle deed is known,



for man by nothing is so well betrayed as by his manners." *Unselfishness*—"The secret of good manners is to forget one's self completely." Show how giving one's seat to the old or crippled is an example of unselfishness.

- c. Ask if the other elements studied are brought out on the trolley. Give example.
  - d. Let children ask questions about how to act on car that have not been discussed in class.
  - e. Dramatize a scene on a trolley car, have an old lady, school girl, etc., as characters.
3. *In Stores and Places of Amusement*
- a. Have Chapter XXII in *Everyday Manners* read to class, also other books which bring out the subject.
  - b. Let children tell of instances they have seen of bad manners in these places.
  - c. Let class suggest and adopt rules of conduct for stores and places of amusements; write in notebook.
  - d. Ask for questions. There is always some child who wants to know about something not brought out in the discussions.
  - e. Discuss the proper dress for these occasions as studied.
  - f. Ask how the elements of good conduct are followed at these places. Let class relate experiences. For example, how they helped an old person across the street, to find a store, etc.

4. *At the Station and on the Train*

- a. Have Chapter XXI in *Everyday Manners* read in class, also other books.
- b. Tell class to pretend they are taking a trip, discuss what to wear, what clothing to take, how many and what kind of bags to take, etc.
- c. Discuss the way to: Ask for information at a station, buy a ticket, call a Red Cap, find a seat on the train (discuss the bad manners people show who occupy too much seating space, etc.), a dinner on a diner, tip the waiter or porter, act on a Pullman (tell experiences of being on a sleeper and being kept awake by thoughtless persons, etc.).
- d. The trip may be carried to the destination and discuss calling a taxi, registering at the hotel, etc.

- e. Dramatize the entire trip, have as many in class take part as possible.
- f. Adopt rules for traveling and put in notebook.
- g. Have class write about a trip they have taken and the examples of good or bad manners they observed.

5. *At a Restaurant*

May be discussed with those in the diner.

6. *At Church*

Discuss and make rules governing same.

II. *Good Manners at School*

1. *In the Home Room and Classroom*

- a. Have Chapter XVI in *Everyday Manners* read in class.
- b. Make and adopt in class rules for conduct for these places.
- c. Make resolutions as to the following of these rules as nearly as possible, and report in class any member who fails to do so. Decide upon the punishment (one class had those found guilty write the rule broken fifty times; for instance, "Put your waste paper in the trash basket, not on the floor or desk" for those guilty of throwing paper on floor).
- d. Discuss the elements such as honesty, courtesy, etc., which are practised in the schoolroom. Have stories read of such instances.

2. *In Assembly*

- a. Have Chapter XIV in *Everyday Manners* read in class.
- b. Call roll and let each child answer with a rule for conduct in assembly. The rule may be acted out by the child and let the class guess which rule is being given. For example, primp, whisper, chew gum, jump up and leave, etc., showing what should *not* be done in assembly.
- c. Dramatize how to introduce speakers and what the speaker should say to acknowledge introduction.
- d. Write a paper telling of an imaginary trip to a school and the good manners you saw in the assembly.

3. *In the Corridors and Lunchroom*

- a. Have Chapters XV and XVII of *Everyday Manners* read in class and have pupils write in their notebooks the rules of conduct brought out, also any which they may think of which may

apply to their own lunchroom or corridors.

- b. Have a sealed box with a slot in top on desk and for a week have girls write on slips of paper the names of any members of the class whom they see breaking any rule of conduct which has been discussed in class and insert this paper in the box. At the end of a week have box opened, papers read, and have some member keep the names of offenders and the number of times they have broken a rule. The person with the greatest number of mistakes is "it." Do not let this run too long, as interest will lag.

#### 4. On the Playground

Fair play, good sportsmanship, etc.

### III. Good Manners in the Home

#### 1. Manners in the Family

- a. How can girls or boys be helpful to mother? Have class make a list of things they do at home to help.
- b. Have Chapter II in *Everyday Manners* read to class.
- c. Discuss reverence and respect to parents or older persons. Kindness and courtesy to all members of the family.
- d. Have pages 215 and 217 in volume one of *Good Manners and Right Conduct* read to class, also other stories illustrating respect and reverence.
- e. Have class write imaginary stories illustrating above. If some member is especially gifted let her write a short play illustrating kindness, helpfulness, respect for parents, truthfulness, etc., in the home. Have play given in class. Often plays are good enough to give at assembly.

#### 2. Entertaining Guests

- a. Read Chapter VII of *Everyday Manners* in class.
- b. Discuss how guests should be treated so as to have them feel perfectly at ease. Also how one should act when a guest in a home.
- c. Introductions (read Chapter III in *Everyday Manners* on introductions). Present young people to older people; less distinguished to more distinguished; gentlemen to ladies. Have members of class dramatize introductions and acknowledgments, illustrating age, dis-

tingtion, and sex. The class may be divided into groups and allowed to plan introductions. For example, have a young girl introduce her boy friend to her mother; a couple of girls meet a boy friend on the street, one girl does not know the boy, have boy introduced to other girl; have one girl introduce a member of the class to the teacher; have a group of girls plan a party with a guest of honor and let the hostess introduce the guests to her guest of honor. Many other situations will be suggested by the class where all rules of introduction can be brought out by dramatization.

- d. Parties—formal and informal (if class is composed of very young girls do not spend much time on formal entertaining).

#### (1) Invitations

Have Chapter IX in *Everyday Manners* read to class about writing and answering formal and informal invitations.

Have each member of class write some one in class an invitation to an informal party, to which a reply will be required.

- (2) Discuss with class how to act at a party; read all information available on the subject.

#### (3) Table Manners

This may be stressed or merely lightly touched upon according to the group with which you are working. Have each girl read in etiquette books and bring to class as many rules of etiquette as she can find. Select from these the most important ones and put in the notebook. If possible to have dishes, silver, linen, etc., serve an imaginary meal. To make it more realistic pictures of food may be placed on the dishes.

### IV. A Last Word

Have class write a paragraph or more on what they have gained most from this class. Have each member of class bring to class a written definition of their idea of what constitutes good manners under all circumstances.

## THE JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL LIBRARY IN SEATTLE

WORTH MCCLURE

EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. McClure was formerly assistant superintendent of the Seattle schools. He is now taking up his work in the New York State Teachers College at Buffalo. "We have no radical innovations in Seattle. We are endeavoring to be conservative progressives" wrote Mr. McClure. You will agree that the spirit of this article comes from a successful and progressive experiment in library organization and administration.

F. E. L.

"In the center of the building a room of fair proportions and harmonious colorings, pleasant to the eye and restful to the mind, crowded with chairs, tables, children, and books. See this group at two adjoining tables working on the same subject—Africa. Look over their shoulders. One has just taken from the shelves a book called *Food Products from Afar*. Here are two boys mapping aerial routes between Africa and other countries from the *Living Age*. Lively comment here over a *Scientific American* article on "Radio Connections with the Dark Continent." Look at that boy propped against a shelf, too excited to sit. He has found *All About Animals* from which he is preparing a special talk on the tiger for his class. He is going to end it with a poem which begins, "Tiger, Tiger, Burning Bright,"—textbooks did you say? Here's the real thing! Wander over to the other side of the room. Ha! The dreadful secret is disclosed! Just as much fiction as nonfiction, more, for they are in circulation and make no showing on the shelves. Now that the room is full of people see what the other half is doing. Yes, reading fiction! In the library! During school hours!

"Stand at the catalogue for a moment to see what subjects the children are looking up for themselves and ask them to explain:

### *Pipe Organ*

"A real one. I and another guy are building it in the garage for our moving-picture theater."

### *Poetry, by Maselfield*

"Miss E. says some of his poems are like stories."

### *Birds of Washington*

"Our bird club is taking an observation walk on Wednesday."

### *Tarkington*

"I've just finished *Penrod* and they say there's another book about him."

### *Puppet Plays*

"We are making our own puppets."

### *Shakespeare Costumes*

"I am dressing some dolls for our literature class."

### *Indian Designs*

"Tomorrow we are going to draw Indian pottery in color."

"Turn back to your Belief No. 1, that a school library must contain many textbooks, and determine how many of these needs can be filled from textbooks:

"Bells ring, doors swing, feet shuffle, chairs grate. No hushed and holy place, this. Youth is gathering on its reading ground with all the vim of youth. Sit in on discussions of such subjects as:

"Resolved that labor unions are necessary."

"The young people of this generation are going to the dogs."



"Resolved that the income tax should be modified."

"Now stand near the desk and hear the reference questions asked in a half hour:

"Cloves from Zanzibar."

"A map of the African caravan routes."

"A history of this stamp which bears the picture of a pineapple."

"The colors of the first Confederate flag."

"A fifteen-minute Irish dialogue."

"Another good school story like *Harding of St. Timothy's*."

"A description of the clog dance that we are learning in gym."

"Where are the joke books?"

"How about Belief No. 2? Would reference books alone answer the questions just quoted?"

"Thirteen hundred children come together in one building for seven hours a day during the school year. The library is the only room, except the lunchroom, that is common to all of them. What shall that room mean to them now and later? Here they are, thirteen hundred strong, passing through the new mental and physical experiences of adolescence which make them very susceptible to surroundings and influences. Is there any better time to introduce them to the best in literature?"

"A school library once spelled text and reference books for school use; now it spells best reading of all types for work and pleasure interests. The library becomes alive to the child because it gives him what he wants. You expose the susceptible adolescent to the

best fiction and nonfiction for his age and allow him to use it in a library, in order to develop 'strong motives for and permanent interests in reading,' so that he will seek out books and libraries for his work and pleasure all the rest of his life."

In the foregoing words, Miss Anne Hall, librarian at Alexander Hamilton Intermediate School, gives a vivid description of the junior-high-school library in action in Seattle.

This conception is perhaps of interest because of the agreement between the Seattle Public Library and the Seattle Public Schools under which junior-high-school libraries are coöperatively administered.

According to the terms of this agreement the Seattle Public Library agrees to provide:

1. All books except a nucleus of general reference materials representing an investment of approximately \$500. Though only two years old, Alexander Hamilton School now has 4000 books for approximately 1300 students, besides the resources noted in (4) below.

2. Supervision by the public library staff of

- a. Librarians and library service.

- b. Cataloguing of materials. This is done at the central public library under direction of the head cataloguer.

3. Mending service for all public library books.

4. Access to the shelves of the Seattle Public Library for borrowing purposes. Library trucks visit junior-high-school libraries virtually every day in maintaining this service.

The Seattle Public Schools provide:

1. A graduate librarian for each junior high school. Miss Hall, for example, is a former member of the public-library staff, having served for a number of years as Children's Librarian at the University District Branch of the Seattle Public Library.

2. The services of a cataloguer and typist for cataloguing new books.

3. All library furniture and equipment.

This plan was first tried out experimentally and finally adopted for all junior high schools. It is now in effect in three junior high schools and will be extended to the fourth when it is ready for occupancy in September, 1930. Some of the educational advantages of the cooperative arrangement are:

1. The schools receive the services of trained librarians under the expert supervision of a children's librarian. Librarians are at the same time members of the school staff and subject to the administrative direction of the superintendent's office and the principal's.

2. The schools receive the benefit of the resources of a metropolitan public library in building up an adequate supply of books for each school and in being able to borrow additional books upon call as needed.

3. The public library secures increased circulation.

4. The public library is enabled to establish closer relationship with the homes of Seattle through the school organization. Parents come to know and appreciate the service rendered to their children by the library and inci-

dentally to learn something of its potential service to themselves.

5. Pupils may be trained at school to utilize the resources of the local branch library whose general organization and operative technique are exactly like that of the school.

It will be recognized at once that such a dual relationship has its liabilities. These have been avoided in Seattle in part by the linking of the administrative direction of the libraries with the schools and in part by the cordial relationship existing between school and library authorities. The staff of each organization realizes that its function is essentially one of service and both firmly believe that through such a unification of effort that service may be more effectively rendered. In recognition of this principle, for example, the advice of the library is had by the schools in the planning of each junior-high-school library, as well as in the selection of junior-high-school librarians.

The school program, needless to say, is designed to enable the library to become "the heart of the school." How to adapt teaching method to increased library resources is one of the problems now being studied by the teaching staff. The library in its turn seeks advice of the teaching staff in compiling new lists of books to be provided.

The whole trend of developments indicates that both parties to the agreement are realizing that the school may be more of a library and the library more of a school.

## AVIATION AND THE PUBLIC-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

By ROLAND H. SPAULDING

EDITOR'S NOTE: *Mr. Spaulding is instructor in aeronautical education in the School of Education of New York University and liaison officer for the Curtis Flying Service, Incorporated, and the School of Education. He has just completed the flight training necessary for a private pilot's license.*  
R. E. P.

There probably is no finer example of sociological determination of the curriculum in public-school education than that afforded in the field of aeronautics. It comes as a source of surprise to a great many people, including not a few educators, that approximately three hundred public schools in the United States are now giving instruction in aeronautics. In at least fifty of these schools, this instruction is given by means of aeronautical subjects as such; in the rest, the material used has been correlated with traditional subjects already in the curriculum, or else it is being given by means of extracurricular activities under the supervision and direction of the school authorities.

Lindbergh probably little realized as he winged his way across the broad expanse of the Atlantic that the successful completion of his flight would influence directly, and to a marked degree, public-school education in the United States within a period of two years—and yet such has proved to be one of the remarkable results of a remarkable achievement. No sooner had he received the welcome of the French people than boys and girls in America began to ask their teachers about flying machines, aviators, the Atlantic Ocean, and the French. Concerning the latter, the teachers were fairly well informed; concerning aviation, they knew little or nothing. The result was that innumer-

able requests came to the Daniel Guggenheim Fund for the Promotion of Aeronautics for literature bearing upon this subject which had suddenly become one of paramount interest to young and old. This interest on the part of school children found expression in the organization of aviation clubs, model-airplane contests. School teachers found themselves impelled by the demands of eager and alert children to inform themselves regarding this fascinating subject. Many of them saw an opportunity to motivate subjects of little or no appeal to the young people of today.

The Daniel Guggenheim Fund Committee on Elementary and Secondary Aeronautical Education was organized to cooperate with the people charged with the responsibility of public education in the United States. This cooperation took the form of furnishing material for subject matter, a list of available books, and counsel and advice.

In many communities definite courses in aeronautics were organized. Still other communities found themselves confronted with the demands of new-born aeronautical industries and enterprises for skilled and semi-skilled employees. The school systems of these communities responded with courses in aeronautics upon the professional and trade education level. These courses range all the way from an elementary course in gas engines to a full four-year curriculum, including two hundred hours of flight instruction.



## ATTENTION TO INDIVIDUAL NEEDS OF PUPILS

HERBERT P. STELLWAGEN

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *Mr. Herbert P. Stellwagen, principal of the Yeatman Intermediate School, St. Louis, Missouri, has for two years been carrying on an experiment which is worth considering. I have been watching the process with much interest. He thinks he has a program by which ability grouping with differentiated content and methods to follow is superior to the programs found in other places. The following article is a statement of the program at Yeatman.*

L. W. R.

Recognition of the fact that pupils vary widely with reference to any standard that may be established in any phase of ability or achievement or attitude that may be under consideration leads inevitably to acknowledgment of the fact of great variation in the needs of pupils who are brought together at any stage of their progress through the schools. If these needs are to be cared for adequately in school, administrators and advisers and teachers of the pupils must be willing to adjust every school situation and every school activity to the individual pupil. Administration, guidance, teaching then exist, as they should exist, only to further the growth and development of each pupil along right lines for the best good of the pupil as an individual and as a part of society. Every phase of the life of the school must then come to possess flexibility enough to enable every pupil to live joyously and successfully as a member of the school, to work up to his capacity, and to advance at his own speed. To consider very briefly a few of the possibilities of means of adjustment of the school to the needs of the individual pupil is the purpose of this paper.

Probably the pupil should be classified on his social and subject needs at least as much as on his past scholastic

achievement. His grade and his group of subjects should be determined after careful consideration of his needs as a many-sided individual. Certainly the pupil's needs should weigh more in the consideration than an arbitrary standard or a tradition.

Grouping within the grade, it seems, should be normal and democratic both for advisory and for program purposes. The school situation should make for present happiness and should be as much like out-of-school life as possible. "Ability" grouping, so-called, perhaps generally has accomplished differentiation in time only. That may be accomplished in less dangerous ways. "Ability" grouping has the danger of development of snobbishness and of an unfortunate feeling of superiority on the one hand, and of discouragement and of an undesirable and unnecessary feeling of inferiority on the other hand. "Ability" grouping is based, too, more or less largely on group intelligence tests unskillfully administered. Such tests are not considered reliable for individual intelligence testing, and until individual intelligence tests are reliable enough and test completely enough to give satisfactory individual-intelligence rating, individual intelligence ratings are too dangerous in the hands of most of us to be used for pupil placement.

Normal grouping with ease of movement from group to group appears to be more desirable, especially as all that "ability" grouping achieves may be achieved in other ways with less danger of undesirable subtle results.

To serve the various needs of pupils, the curriculum should be markedly rich and flexible. Its offering in subjects of study should be generous. Common, integrating "core" subjects should cover a wide range in order to provide adequately for individual needs in information, skills, exploration, try-out. The subject matter in each subject of study should be extensive and varied. The extra classroom activities provided in the curriculum should be many and should be suited to all types of interests and needs. The whole curriculum should be considered as a rich body of material from which to select what is needed by any pupil in any school situation.

The program may provide means of adjustment of the curriculum to the individual pupil. Parallel classes in any subject in any grade are an easy means of caring for varying needs of pupils in that subject. Other means of adjustment and differentiation in the program may be coaching periods in charge of specially skillful and sympathetic teachers, an after-school supervised study period for pupils needing additional help and for those whose homes do not provide suitable conditions for study, club periods, auditorium periods, library periods.

Books, regular supplies, and supplementary materials of all sorts should be supplied in sufficient richness to care

adequately for the curriculum needs of all pupils and in all situations. Pupils and teachers may well be generous contributors to the school's collection of materials.

The spirit of the school should be characterized by helpfulness and service on the part of all. Coöperation for the individual and the general good is necessary. Ideals of work and character and citizenship, while conceived on the level of the pupils, should be high. In a happy, friendly school atmosphere, each pupil may work joyously, enthusiastically, whole-heartedly, purposefully, and may develop constantly along all worthy lines. Pupils should be encouraged to be independent, to solve their own problems as far as possible, but they should gladly avail themselves of all the means provided by the school for help in their difficulties. If the spirit and the management of affairs are right, pupils will come to desire the help that they need.

For the guidance of pupils, adequate machinery must be set up. It must be oiled with sympathy, understanding, patience, liking. Guidance must be based on knowledge of the pupil, his situation, his needs.

On the problem of the successful handling of the pupil according to his needs, those concerned with the problem need to bring to bear all that they have of knowledge and skill, of inspiration, of devotion. In this field, experimenting and pioneering are still challenging opportunities.

# COMMITTEE ON PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF THE MIDDLE STATES AND MARYLAND<sup>1</sup>

ARTHUR J. JONES

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** *Dr. Arthur J. Jones, professor of secondary education at the University of Pennsylvania, is and has been for years one of the steady lights permeating the fog which has so frequently almost obscured the functions and goals of secondary education. For many years Dr. Jones was the able secretary of the National Association of College Teachers of Education. Just now one of his interests is to help the exhorters and condemners actually to get the facts concerning secondary education in Europe and in America. Another of his interests is to promote the articulation of secondary and higher education in the Middle States and Maryland.*

P. W. L. C.

The Commission on Higher Institutions and the Commission on Secondary Schools of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland authorized early in 1928 the formation of a joint committee of the two commissions to study the mutual problems of secondary and higher education.

The Commission on Higher Institutions is represented by Dr. James N. Rule, deputy superintendent of the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, and Dr. Wilson Farrand, headmaster, Newark Academy. Dr. William A. Wetzel, principal of the Trenton High School, Dr. Radcliffe Heermance, director of admission, Princeton University, and Dr. E. D. Grizzell, chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools, represent the latter commission. Dr. Rule is chairman of the joint committee.

The problem of immediate concern to the committee, which first met on June 19, 1928, was the drafting of a set of recommendations to higher institutions and secondary schools to cover two evident needs: (1) a standard pro-

cedure for reporting the achievement of students in higher institutions to the secondary schools from which they graduated; (2) a standard procedure for determining the rank of students in secondary schools who apply for admission to higher institutions.

The draft was submitted for criticism and revision to the registrars and directors of admission in 158 higher institutions in all parts of the United States. All these officers were in entire agreement with the spirit of the recommendations, and with few exceptions coöperation was promised in carrying out the specific details. The recommendations as finally adopted are as follows:

1. Higher institutions receiving graduates from secondary schools on the List of Accredited Secondary Schools of this association are requested to submit to the Commission on Secondary Schools and to the school concerned identical reports including (a) the absolute marks of each student in each subject for the first term of the freshman year (and the second term if possible); (b) the quartile or quintile

<sup>1</sup>Reprinted from *School and Society*, XXX, 758, July 6, 1929.



standing of the student in all work of the first term (and of the second term if possible). For statistical reasons it is recommended that the *quintile* be adopted if the quartile is not already being used.

2. Secondary schools, when submitting records of students applying for admission to college, are to calculate the class rank (quartile or quintile) of such students on the record of the two terms of the junior year and the first term of the senior year. For statistical reasons, the *quintile* is recommended. The *total number of students in a class* is to be used as a base in computing the necessary statistics on ranking.

3. The records of students, submitted by higher institutions to the Commission on Secondary Schools, are filed and preserved as a continuous record of the work of the students from the secondary schools. This information is available to higher institutions desiring to check up the standing of secondary schools on the List of Accredited Secondary Schools.

Many higher institutions have for a number of years reported to the secondary schools on the achievement of freshman students. Those who follow this practice for the first term only have already submitted duplicates of these reports to the Commission on Secondary Schools for the first semester of 1928-1929. Reports have also been received from colleges and universities that are planning to prepare two or more separate reports: one on the first term and one on the second. The majority of higher institutions have indicated their intention of submitting reports to the commission and to the secondary schools concerned at the end

of each freshman year on the work of the entire year.

A summary of reports received to date shows that a representative number of higher institutions have already furnished the desired information for some phase of the current academic year to the Commission on Secondary Schools and the various secondary schools. Of States outside the territory of the Middle States and Maryland, Massachusetts leads in the number of higher institutions that have rendered reports, and New York State leads those within the territory.

The central office of the Commission on Secondary Schools has supplied information to many admissions officers during the past year. As the reports begin to form a continuous series in the files of the commission, its facilities for rendering service of this kind will increase. Some higher institutions are now discarding cumulative statistical records of the achievement, within their own departments, of graduates of the various secondary schools. The University of Pennsylvania has a wealth of this material which has been collected for the past eleven years. Secondary schools show wide diversity in their consistent ability to prepare students for this institution. Although the records now being initiated by the commission have a wider spread than those of any one institution, they are being used with great care and discretion because they lack the perspective of years.

The secondary schools as a whole have been very enthusiastic about the plan. The Commission on Secondary Schools has urged them to preserve the registrars' reports for use as an index

of efficiency in preparing for college and for use in guidance. Some schools have taken the initiative and requested the reports of the higher institutions when they were not forthcoming.

The information received by the commission has been carefully analyzed. The reports now on file cover 3,800 freshmen, representing an average number of graduates per accredited school for which any report was submitted of 9.7 and a median of 6. It has been found that as a whole the graduates of accredited schools tend to secure a higher scholastic standing in the first term of their college work than do the graduates of other schools attending the same colleges. This higher standing is very slight, however. When more reports have been received, detailed figures will be published that will show more clearly whatever tendency there may be.

The procedure in arriving at this conclusion is as follows: The general average of each student is computed from the marks reported by the college. This average is expressed numerically by giving an arbitrary proportional weight to the various marks and dividing the total sum by the number of units taken. The

total number of students in the freshman class is then divided, in order of their scholastic rank, into five equal divisions, or quintiles. (Some colleges use four.) This is done for each college separately. The relative place of each student may then be seen and a comparison made between the scholastic standing of students from accredited schools and students from other schools.

Of course, the chief value of the reports from higher institutions to the Commission on Secondary Schools is the check on the work of the individual secondary school, for every source of evidence available to the commission is used in the preparation and maintenance of the List of Accredited Secondary Schools. While the commission believes that efficient secondary schools must perform a number of important functions, and that only one of these is preparation for higher institutions, at present no responsibility is assumed beyond that of judging the ability of an efficient secondary school to prepare for college. Since all contacts with individual schools are held confidential, no publicity will be given the work of specific schools beyond that of publishing the accredited list.

## THE NINETY AND NINE IN SACRAMENTO

GEORGE C. JENSEN

*EDITOR'S NOTE: Among the junior high schools, one of the most interesting enterprises is that which is being staged in connection with the Sacramento Senior High School, of which George C. Jensen has been the principal. He is now assistant superintendent of schools. He has been applying the Eureka plan which he invented while principal of the high school at Eureka, California, to the Sacramento High School. This has involved some fundamental administrative changes in the matter of curriculum organization and ability grouping.*

W. M. P.

In California high schools there are at least three distinct types of students: (1) the strictly university type which

ranks high in abstract subjects; (2) the type which remains in high school for graduation but makes of the high school

its finishing unit; and (3) the type which leaves high school before graduation. Which of these three is the highest? Which the lowest? Who knows? That depends entirely upon the measuring rod used. It is sufficient to know that they differ.

A modern high school—into which flows the entire population—must meet this situation or dodge its chief responsibility. An effort is being made in the capital city of California—Sacramento—as elsewhere, to face these facts. In this effort several elements enter which can be but mentioned here.

#### DIFFERENTIATION

There are two kinds of differentiation: differentiation of kind and differentiation of degree. Both are important for the students who differ not only in kinds of subject abilities but also in the degree of possible subject proficiency. In English, for instance, it is not unusual to find the Z classes in a subject differing widely from the X classes, whereas in mathematics the difference will be apt to be one of degree only. The important matter is to find the subject level of the student and to work on from that point. That can be done only by recognizing that there is such a thing as subject ability and that the student who is poor in one subject may be strong in another. This scheme refuses to adhere to the false idea that a student who is weak in one subject is necessarily weak in all. Consequently the school does not use a general mental test for classifying its students. It uses the accumulated experience of each student instead, without neglecting the test.

#### COUNSELING

The school assumes that all students need sound counseling. In compliance with this idea a counseling system consisting of ten counselors has been set up. These persons were carefully selected for this task from the members of the faculty and relieved of all but two periods of teaching per day. (At first three teaching periods.) Each counselor is assigned approximately 300 students. A case study is made of each student. His program is worked out with him and with his parents, and projected into the future. Then it is carefully watched. Whenever a danger signal appears, further analysis is needed. Contact with the home is a vital part of the scheme. During a period of five months last year some 1800 contacts were made—by telephone and in person. It is vital that these be positive and not negative. It is more important to advise the home of success than of failure. Somewhere in the inner make-up of each student the germ of success can be found by the wise counselor. Experience is the great teacher here as elsewhere. The counselor needs the understanding head and the eye that penetrates the crust which encases so many of our boys and girls.

Nor is it mere vocational counseling but *life* counseling which concerns us. The child and the man must live beyond the hours of making a living. To teach the child to be socially, morally, spiritually, and physically literate is quite as vital as to teach him to fit into a good job or to read and write. Illiteracy has many sides to it and the counselor tries to meet them all.



## CO-OPERATIVE PART-TIME EDUCATION

It can no longer be assumed that the school is the sole educating agency. There is a vast difference between being schooled and being educated. All of our organizations and activities—in school and out—are educational factors. Too many of them are unconscious of this fact and so teach wrong lessons.

Any scheme then which tends to make a conscious, positive, educational agency of any of the community elements is a forward-looking scheme. Coöperative part-time education is such a scheme and destined, I believe, to transform our secondary schools speedily. In short, it is a scheme whereby the business man is recognized as a teacher and his institution as part of the school. Boys and girls over the age of sixteen (or younger for that matter) who wish to be trained for gainful employment (and all are "employed" these days) are sent directly out on jobs while they are still students in high school. First, the analysis of the job, to find out what the business or profession in question can best teach, and what the school can best teach. Then the assignment of the student to the place—half of his time in the school and half of his time on the job—all being counted as his school program with school credit for the entire day's work. To complete the psychological background, the employer or some one in his establishment who has the student in charge when on the job, is certificated by the State and becomes a part of the faculty of the school.

The school, after the job analysis has been made (which is participated in by the employer), will place a stu-

dent in any trade, industry, business, or profession. Instead of trying in vain to set up in the school conditions comparable to those in industry, the actual laboratories which exist by the thousands in the community are used. Apparently the business and professional worlds are more ready for this development than are the schools. The plan is not unique in Sacramento. Cities such as Vallejo and Oakland and many others have long had it in use.

Of course there are many other phases in this whole matter, such as student placement, teacher training on the job, conferences, community committees representing the different occupations, and perpetual community surveys. How to learn to train as effectively for all other activities as we train for university life—that is the question. For generations we have been engaged with building and running university preparatory schools and so providing effectively for an almost insignificant part of the population. But the ninety and nine are at the gates crying for attention. Can we meet the issue? If we can't, then the ninety and nine will "erase this sorry scheme of things and remold it nearer to the heart's desire."

Monopoly is a dangerous thing. Too long there has existed an aristocracy of intellect which, like any other aristocracy, has tried to select its own successors. The first class, mentioned in the first paragraph, has had substantially all the attention in the past. Sacramento proposes that each person shall have an equal chance to discover himself and to be trained to fit adequately and happily into the profitable expending of twenty-four hours each day.

## BOOK REVIEWS

### *The Junior High School and Its Curriculum*, by PHILIP W. L. COX (Scribner's).

One reads with increasing interest how "the big scholastic factory engaged in mass production is giving way to an individualized child-centric creative environment." The outcome of fifteen years of study and observation of and participation in the modern scientific theory and practice of education in some of the most progressive junior high schools of the United States, this book offers a consistent philosophy of democracy and education and illustrates how this can be applied to all junior-high-school pupils and situations. The flexible purposive curriculum that the author would have each junior high-school faculty work out with the help of children and parents and community leaders distinguishes this volume from all others in this field.

First, the author introduces his reader to the curriculum-emergent which involves present satisfying practices of the fundamental objectives—associational living, civic attitude and knowledge, language arts, scientific interests and related mathematics, appreciations, and practical arts. In all these pupil activities the conventional-subject distinctions would break down as would also the distinctions between extra-curriculum and curriculum. In the putting into effect such a program of studies the paramount emphasis on the part of both the administrator and the teacher would be "on what pupils want to know, to do and to be rather than upon the knowledge and skills that they get from the curriculum."

Professor Cox gives an exposition of his theories of the curriculum-emergent and their practical applications to a certain extent as they developed in the newer child-centered schools with which he has been associated in Easton, Massachusetts, Solvay, New York, the Ben Blewett Junior High School of St. Louis, Missouri, the Washington School of New York, and the Lincoln School of Teachers College. There is much discussion and sympathetic criticism of both theory and practice as they exist in the average junior high school of today.

The author discusses at length not only the seven fundamental objectives of the junior high school but the elections in the high school as well. In these discussions he stresses the scope of each and defines the philosophic and psycho-

logical bases for the emerging curriculum, giving succinct statements as to its values with fearless though friendly criticism all through the chapters.

In the first and last chapters of the book the author takes cognizance of the parallel in the spirit of the junior high school of today and the spirit of the youth of tomorrow. In the definition of the former, he says:

"The emerging life curriculum directed by progressive junior high schools becomes an instrument of creative coördination, which is the function of true religion, true government, and true education. But such coördination results neither from the formalities of religion nor from the mechanics of government. Neither can it result from mere schooling. The coördination and integration of life cannot progress apart from purposive, enthusiastic, joyous living."

Review prepared by committee in a Summer School class, State University of Iowa, 1929, under instruction of James M. Glass, Rollins College, Florida.

*Committee:* J. C. Dewey, Chairman, Superintendent, Galesville, Wis.; Paul B. Jacobson, Principal, Junior Senior High School, Little Falls, Minn.; Elizabeth H. Graves, Head, English Department, Junior High School, Mason City, Iowa.

### *Creative Power*, by HUGHES MEARNES (Doubleday, Doran).

"For the individual spirit—I am stating my faith—is itself something that never appeared in the world before; if allowed its fullest development it would transform the world for the world's good." This is the creed on which *Creative Power* is based. In fact, it is the creed of the new education—the underlying and potent faith that makes such books as *Creative Power* and *Creative Youth*, its earlier, companion volume, possible.

Part I of *Creative Power* reveals, frankly and sincerely, the doubts, the beliefs, the aspirations, and the methods of the artist teacher. Part II contains types of high-school prose selected from *Lincoln Lore* in 1920 to 1925, the years during which Mr. Mearns carried on his experiment in creative writing. Mr. Mearns writes primarily of his five-year experiment in creative writing in a private school. He tells of his use of the impersonal poetry drawer where contributions might be

deposited without undue embarrassment to the young authors; he analyzes the individual spirit and states his faith in it; he criticizes the opposition of many school administrators, teachers, and even communities to a school environment fostering creative endeavor.

Not only does he write of his own experiment, however, but also he publishes many worthwhile contributions from children of other schools, and he tells of many illuminating experiences with subject-matter teachers who believed firmly in product-education or who believed that their own classes were a "hum-drum lot" incapable of any important artistic endeavor.

One of the highly important phases of the book, at least to this reviewer, is Mr. Mearns's evaluation of the teacher who is to conserve the illimitable amount of youth power in her classes. To him, mere freedom is insufficient. It is the teacher, because of what she brings to the class, who changes the attitude not only of the pupils but also of the classroom itself. She will be so unobtrusive in her guidance that she will soon become a welcome necessity in her pupils' lives rather than a necessary evil. Beyond her interest in children and her regard for their inherent creative power, she must have broad sympathetic vision and a clear-cut program of ultimate educational outcomes. Without these she might as well have no interest other than the traditional one in subject matter *per se*. Mr. Mearns has captured, perhaps more surely than any other contemporary, the ways of handling the creative spirit. A high degree of faith, rare tact in criticism, skillful handling of the creative mood, inexhaustible perseverance—and above all, infinite patience—these are some of the elements needed by the artist teacher if she is to probe deeply into the creative lives of her classes.

*Creative Power* is more than a study of a five-year experiment. It is an exceedingly important document, and an invaluable handbook for parents, for teachers, for administrators—in short, for all those who are vitally interested in the creative power of youth. The contributions of children in this volume form an unanswerable indictment against those who believe in rule-of-thumb procedures in composition, in patterns to be followed, in mechanics as the end rather than a mere means to an end.

D. I. M.

*The Courts and the Curriculum*, by  
OTTO TEMPLAR HAMILTON (Teach-

ers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 250, 1927).

"The courts have no power to make prescriptions concerning the curriculum. They can only adjudicate particular cases that may be brought before them. The outcome of a case may vitally affect the curriculum. The courts have construed the statutes relating to the adoption, use, and change of textbooks strictly in favor of the public, as against the person holding or seeking to obtain special privileges relating to the furnishing of textbooks. They will not interfere with the discretion of school officials unless it appears that their action has been unconstitutional or illegal, or unless such action has amounted to an abuse of the power vested in the official. They have no power to institute any action on their own motion."

"It is believed by the author that nowhere else in this country can evidences of more careful, considerate, and conscientious thinking upon curricular problems be found than in the opinions of the judges of the courts of the land. After a year of intensive study of the decisions relating to the curriculum of the public schools, the author has a feeling of great confidence in the courts in regard to the adjudication of curricular controversies. This feeling is not founded upon the extent to which the courts agree with one another, for they do not so agree. Nor is it founded upon the author's agreement with the weight of the decisions upon the issues or upon any one of them. It is founded rather upon the evidences in the decisions themselves which show apparently honest, sincere, and painstaking effort on the part of the judges to decide cases according to sound principles of law and the facts presented."

Dr. Hamilton thus pays respect to our courts as a result of an exhaustive study, the purposes of which were: (1) discovering those issues, pertinent to the curriculum of the public common schools, that have been adjudicated by the higher judicial tribunals of the States and the nation; (2) isolating and revealing some legal principles that have been decisive of cases in which the issues involved were related to the curriculum of the public schools, and which might serve as practical aids to those who may be confronted by legal questions pertaining to the curriculum; and (3) attempting to discover trends in the attitude of the judicial tribunals towards issues pertinent to the curriculum.



Some six hundred cases were studied which included decisions affecting:

- (1) The scope of the curriculum
- (2) Control of the curriculum by legislative action
- (3) Control of the curriculum by local agencies
- (4) Religion and the Bible in the public schools
- (5) Instructional supplies
- (6) The adoption and change of textbooks

The trends of these decisions are summarized by Dr. Hamilton as follows:

"1. There has been a general trend of the decisions towards the more complete recognition of the power and duty of the State legislature and the local school corporations to provide a more extended public-school organization and a more varied offering of particular secular subject matter in the public schools.

"2. There has been a trend of the decisions towards the exclusion of all religious instruction as such, or religious influence whatsoever, from the public schools.

"3. The trend of the decisions has been towards the recognition of the inherent right of the child to an education and a consequent trend towards the decrease of the parent's absolute control over his child's opportunity for an education.

"4. The trend of the decisions has been towards favoring the public as against those persons who have been given special privileges in regard to furnishing instructional supplies to school corporations and to the public.

"5. There has been a trend of the decisions towards upholding the power of the local school corporation to provide, upon its own initiative, instructional equipment for its schools.

"6. There has lately been a suggestion of a trend towards greater participation of the Federal courts in the adjudication of controversies involving the curriculum."

P. W. L. C.

*The Reconstruction of the American School Curriculum*, by HAROLD RUGG  
(*The New Era*, April, 1929).

After summarizing the background of the movement for curriculum reorganization, and the changes during the past quarter century, Dr. Rugg analyzes the present status of the movement. The following are the conspicuous changes in the curriculum and in the techniques by which it has been constructed:

1. *Change in purpose.* The conception of formal discipline has been replaced by the principle of maximal child growth at minimal expense. The two aims of tolerant understanding of contemporary life and growth through self-expression are being more and more widely sought.
2. *Change in leadership.* A new type of leadership, that of the specially trained professional curriculum maker, is emerging.
3. *Change in method.* The textbook writer on method is being replaced by critical eye-witness recorders of school activities.
4. *Change in content.* Subservience to the very ancient past is being replaced by dynamic interest in the understanding of contemporary life.
5. *Change in organization.* The tendency is markedly in the direction of cutting down the number of departments in the curriculum and expanding the scope of each.

These changes have been brought about by two experimental groups: the educational revolutionaries, who have produced novel types of school programs, dynamic activities, and experiments on the integrated nature of learning; and the students of the scientific study of education, who offer the techniques of measurement, experimentation, and statistical method.

A. D. W.

*Objectives of Education* (Second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Educational Sociology).

This yearbook is composed of three contributions, by Professor David Snedden, Professor Charles C. Peters, and Professor P. W. L. Cox. The general problem, which each of the contributors attacks from a somewhat different angle, is the determination of educational objectives.

Professor Snedden submits a comprehensive analysis of certain practicable methods of deciding upon the aims of education. His study is based upon the following assumptions:

1. Sociology is the science of the products, functions, or values which come to participating members through social group structures, processes, or conditions.
2. A society may consist of only two members.
3. A society may consist of millions of members.
4. Some societies are tangible and definable.
5. Some processes within definable societies are easily perceived; others are imperceptible.

6. Some tangible social processes operate through intangible structures or groupings.
7. Sociology discovers the existence of processes operating through social organs that are unsuspected by ordinary men.
8. Societies are greatly affected by antecedent or concurrent natural conditions.
9. Societies are profoundly affected by the social environment.

Professor Snedden then defines the function of educational sociology and points out at length its part in the determination of social values, or educational objectives.

Professor Peters submits two illustrations of the technique to be employed in determining educational objectives in specific fields, biology, and worthy home membership. He and his co-author, Elizabeth Crossley, point out the danger that standardized tests may, unless they are carefully validated, place undue emphasis upon the learning of knowledge that is not socially of the highest value.

The third article, by Professor Cox, deals with the problem of securing proper recognition of the many forces outside the school which are operating for better or for worse in the education of children. He emphasizes the thesis that adequate reorganization of the curriculum will be brought about only when the new curriculum is planned as a whole in terms of objectives. Revisions based on the essential permanence of the accepted subjects, radical eliminations and additions, the subordination of subjects to objectives—none of these will quite lead to the desired result—a curriculum that will enable the teacher to reinforce, guide, and direct the social life of the pupil.

For illustrations of the adequate procedure Professor Cox turns to Russia and Denmark. In his opinion, though our goal may be the same as that of Russia, our road towards the goal will be that of Denmark. A. D. W.

*Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum*, by JESSE KNOWLTON FLANDERS (Teachers College, Columbia University, Bureau of Publications).

Dr. Flanders has made an intensive study of the tendency on the part of State legislatures to enact more and more legislation directing that specific subjects be included in the elementary-school curriculum. This tendency is, as he points out, in direct apposition to the current educational belief that the activities of children

in school should be directed by specialists who have studied the needs of children in relation to the society in which they are living and are to live. Dr. Flanders found a steady and significant increase in the number of subjects prescribed by State legislative enactment between 1903 and 1923 throughout the country. These subjects he has classified under eight heads, including nationalism, health, conservation of life and property, religious and ethical subjects, and others. In many cases the law required simply the memorization of specific subject matter, such as the Constitution of the United States, or the performance of a specified activity, such as the reading of five verses from the Bible at the opening of school each day. In many cases the legislative action seems directed towards teaching the child what to think. To some extent this is the propaganda of influential social groups.

While it is true, as Dr. Flanders points out, that most of the laws referred to are of such a nature that they do not work any great hardship upon school authorities, still our legislators are pursuing a course which, if persisted in, will eventually deprive pupils of the advantages of professional leadership. Every new mandate is not only an encroachment upon the sphere which may best be left to professional school men, but it is frequently a definite curtailment of possible service to the child and to society.

Perhaps greater readiness on the part of school teachers and administrators to introduce desirable innovations into the curricula of their schools would be an effective means of combating this tendency. As education goes, innovations are at the present time extremely likely to be advocated and introduced by some one. Perhaps it is the business of those of us who see dangers in legislative dominance to provide offerings of our own that will meet the requirements of current educational thought.

P. W. L. C.

*Measurement of Appreciation in Poetry, Prose, and Art, and Studies in Appreciation*, by ROBERT K. SPEER, Ph.D. (Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 362).

Dr. Speer has given us valuable data bearing on a most vital problem. Educators have long been seriously concerned with the danger that lies in the indiscriminating use of scientific measures of achievement in school. The

tests that are now available are for the most part adequate and reliable measures of formal skills and factual knowledge. Students of education, however, are given to pointing out that the really significant growth that takes place in pupils is the realm of habits and attitudes, for which measures are at present only very inadequate, if available at all.

Dr. Speer has made a significant beginning in the field of measurement of appreciations. The use of the tests he has devised, and of others in related fields that are sure to follow, should emancipate teachers from the necessity of overemphasizing the formal aspects of school activities. As soon as it becomes possible to measure objectively, and hence to receive recognition for, the growth of power to appreciate, then the teacher will be in a better position to devote time and energy to the promotion of these desirable aims.

As a step in the direction of placing proper emphasis on activities leading to the recognized aims of education, Dr. Speer's study has real significance.

A. D. W.

*Education in Utopia*, by GILDO MASSO  
(Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 257).

Despite the fact that it is a far cry from Plato to Wells, Dr. Masso has considered their beliefs, as well as those of intervening Utopians, concerning the place of education in Utopias. The purposes of the study are as follows: (1) to show the place of education in Utopias; (2) to present the educational views of the authors of Utopias; (3) to discuss the Utopian educational agencies; and (4) to determine to what extent there is any realization of Utopian theories in present-day practices or any promise of such realization in the future.

Education, which is one of the most outstanding instruments of progress, is used in this study not only in a formal sense, but also in an informal one. Hence, the home, the church, the school, and the community are considered as agencies of education. The Utopians agree that education, in this broad sense, is the hope of social progress and the mainstay of society.

The Utopians' indictments against the school as an educative agency are many and varied. They assail the curriculum because of its passivity and the traditionalism implied in its informational aspects. They argue with the school

for stressing the so-called passive virtues of citizenship, obedience, and conformity although the so-called active virtues of initiative and originality are neglected. They place some of the blame for the shortcomings of formal education on large classes, inadequate buildings and equipment, insufficient salaries, and the irregularity and casualness of the educational organization. A large share of the blame, however, they place on the defects of personality in teachers.

The Utopians agree on the necessity of work. The work day, however, is considerably shorter in Utopias than is our day. As a result, there is increased leisure available for everybody. Work, which is determined as far as possible by the individual's inclinations and ability, is done under humane conditions. The principle of compulsory labor service teaches the lesson of work as a civic duty and promotes social justice and solidarity.

All the Utopians attach tremendous importance to the community as a determinant of the character of mankind. It is impossible to measure the effects on individuals of such factors as: the rational arrangement of everyday affairs, with its emphasis on all-round development of the individual through adequate work, leisure, and rest; the democratic elements in government, even under monarchy and aristocracy; the co-operation and mutual regard between the various formative institutions of society—home, church, school, government, press, theater, etc.; the equality of opportunity that as a rule exists in all fields of endeavor—in education, in industry and the professions, and in the government; the widespread facilities for the acquisition of knowledge and the formation of public opinion; and the recognition accorded to the possessors of expert knowledge.

According to the author, the following are the main Utopian ideals that have been accepted so far as valid: (1) social solidarity; (2) morality; (3) equality of opportunity; (4) equality of duty; (5) equality of the sexes; (6) eugenics; (7) the social theory of property; (8) education as the supreme agency for individual and social direction and control and for the creation of an ideal social system in which social evils will be prevented and prohibitive legislation rendered unnecessary.

That the above ideals have been even partially applicable in our world is due to the will-to-do of the Utopians. It is the continuance of this doctrine based on the social will that will determine social progress. D. I. M.